DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 278 220 FL 016 352

AUTHOR Saltarelli, Mario, Ed.
TITLE The Foreign Language Syllabus--Grammar, Notions and Functions.
INSTITUTION Illinois Univ., Urbana. Language Learning Lab.
PUB DATE 83
NOTE 143p.; For individual papers, see FL 016 353-357 and ED 218 925.
AVAILABLE FROM Language Learning Laboratory, G-70 Foreign Languages Building, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 707 S. Mathews, Urbana, IL 61801 ($6.30).
PUB TYPE Collected Works - Serials (022)
JOURNAL CIT Studies in Language Learning; v4 n1 Spr 1983

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Communicative Competence (Languages); Course Content; *Course Descriptions; Course Objectives; *Curriculum Design; English for Special Purposes; Foreign Countries; *Grammar; *Notional Functional Syllabi; *Second Language Instruction; Test Construction; Testing
IDENTIFIERS *Communicative Approach; Finland

ABSTRACT

Papers in this journal issue concern various aspects of foreign language syllabus construction. Titles and authors are: "The Threshold Level: A Notional-Functional Syllabus" (Barbara F. Matthies); "Functions of Grammar in a Language Teaching Syllabus" (William E. Rutherford); "Communicative and Grammatical Syllabuses to Teach Conversational Skills" (Richard Mead); "The Implications for Testing of the Communicative Approach to Language Teaching" (Brendan J. Carroll); "New Orientations in Foreign Language Syllabus Construction in Finland in the 1970's" (Sauli Takala); and "The Theory and Practice of Teaching English for Special Purposes" (Donald W. Cruickshank). Three book reviews and a list of publications received are also included. (MSE)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

STUDIES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

AN INTERDISCIPLINARY REVIEW OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION, LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY, STYLISTICS, AND LANGUAGE PLANNING.

ED278220

Special Issue on

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE SYLLABUS — GRAMMAR, NOTIONS AND FUNCTIONS

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

B. Mainous

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

EDITED BY
MARIO SALTARELLI

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

4

Volume 4, Number 1, Spring 1983

FL016352

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

PUBLICATION OF THE LANGUAGE LEARNING LABORATORY
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

STUDIES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

AN INTERDISCIPLINARY REVIEW OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION, LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY, STYLISTICS, AND LANGUAGE PLANNING.

EDITORIAL BOARD

MARIO SALTARELLI (ISSUE EDITOR)
PETER COLE (ASSOCIATE EDITOR)
U. HENRY GERLACH (ASSOCIATE EDITOR)
ROBERT S. HART (ASSOCIATE EDITOR)
HANS HENRICH HOCK (REVIEW EDITOR)
JOHN A. LETT, JR. (ASSOCIATE EDITOR)
BRUCE H. MAINOUS (BUSINESS EDITOR)
SEIICHI MAKINO (ASSOCIATE EDITOR)
ELLEN L. ABELL (PRODUCTION EDITOR)

Studies in Language Learning (SLL) is primarily concerned with applied linguistics, and specifically with language acquisition, language pedagogy, stylistics, and language planning. *SLL* gives preference to contributions which are of theoretical and/or methodological interest. *SLL* aims at developing an interdisciplinary cooperation between faculty and students working in language-related fields in humanities, social sciences, education, and other disciplines. In order to promote such interdepartmental exchange of ideas *SLL* has a number of editorial advisors representing various disciplines.

CONTRIBUTIONS: *SLL* includes PREPUBLICATION versions of contributions from the faculty and students of the University of Illinois. Invited contributions from non-University of Illinois faculty and students may also be included. *SLL* encourages detailed papers which present the state of the art of various subfields of applied linguistics and focus on current insights and controversies in the language-related fields. Shorter notes and comments will be published in the Notes and Comments section. Contributions should be sent to Bruce H. Mainous, G-70 Foreign Languages Building, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 707 S. Mathews, Urbana, Illinois 61801. The style sheet and details for the typing of manuscripts are available on request.

BOOK REVIEWS: Publications should be submitted to Bruce H. Mainous, Business Editor, *SLL*, G-70 Foreign Languages Building, 707 S. Mathews, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, Illinois 61801. The Review Section will include detailed reviews or review articles, for which two review copies should be submitted. In addition, there will be Short Notices and a listing of Publications Received, for which one copy should be submitted.

ORDERS: *SLL* is an occasional periodical, with at least one issue per calendar year. Because each issue may vary in length, we cannot predict printing costs and therefore cannot offer subscription pricing. Information concerning each issue and an order form will be sent to those on the *SLL* mailing list. Requests to be placed on this list may be sent to: *SLL*, Language Learning Laboratory, G-70 Foreign Languages Building, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 707 S. Mathews, Urbana, Illinois 61801. Telephone: 217/333-9776.

PUBLICATION OF THE LANGUAGE LEARNING LABORATORY
(formerly THE UNIT FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY AND RESEARCH)
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

Price of this issue $6.30

3

CONTENTS

ARTICLES

MARIO SALTARELLI — *Editor's Note* iv

BARBARA F. MATTHIES — *The Threshold Level: A Notional-Functional Syllabus* 1

WILLIAM E. RUTHERFORD — *Functions of Grammar in a Language Teaching Syllabus* 14

RICHARD MEAD — *Communicative and Grammatical Syllabuses to Teach Conversational Skills* 33

BRENDAN J. CARROLL — *The Implications for Testing of the Communicative Approach to Language Teaching* 46

SAULI TAKALA — *New Orientations in Foreign Language Syllabus Construction in Finland in the 1970's* 56

DONALD W. CRUICKSHANK — *The Theory and Practice of Teaching English for Special Purposes* 98

REVIEWS

ELIZABETH PEARCE — *A Festschrift for Jacob Ornstein. Studies in General Linguistics and Sociolinguistics*, edited by Edward L. Blansitt, Jr. and Richard V. Teschner 121

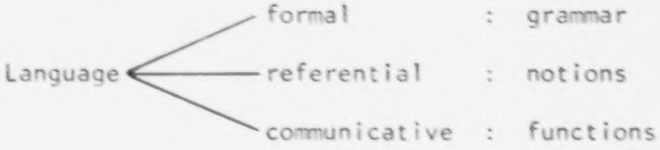
TONY SILVA — *Notion by Notion: Beginning ESL Practice Book*, by Linda Ferreira 125

MICHAEL L. MAZZOLA — *Un niveau-seuil: systèmes d'apprentissage des langues vivantes par les adultes*, by Daniel Coste, Janine Courtillon, Victor Ferenczi, Michel Martine-Baltar, Eliane Papo 127

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED (1981-82) 133

EDITOR'S NOTE

During the last two decades a global look at the use of language in its formal, referential and communicative aspects has generated a volume of research activity, in the fields of linguistics and philosophy, which has considerably expanded our concept of grammar.



Of particular appeal to educators interested in syllabus construction have been the systematic approaches to the study of the lexicon (the referential aspect) and conversational structure (the communicative aspect). Consequently there has been in the last decade a definite trend in the construction of the foreign language syllabus to amplify the role of the referential and communicative aspects vis-à-vis the "grammar" in its narrower traditional sense of morpho-syntax. This volume is intended as a contribution toward an understanding of the relative importance of grammar, notions and functions in the make-up of the foreign language syllabus.

THE THRESHOLD LEVEL:
A NOTIONAL-FUNCTIONAL SYLLABUS

BARBARA F. MATTHIES
Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa

Studies in Language Learning (1982), 4, 1-13.

0. INTRODUCTION

In 1971, in Rüschlikon, Switzerland, the Council for Cultural Co-operation, a permanent agency of the Council of Europe, sponsored a symposium on "Linguistic content, means of evaluation, and their interaction in the teaching and learning of modern languages in adult education." The impetus to hold such a conference had come from the increasing movement across national boundaries within postwar Europe of workers seeking better jobs, business people developing broader markets, and students needing specialized training. While the traditional barriers of culture and language were becoming less formidable, the Council recognized that more should be done to further its goal of promoting the study of modern languages in order to encourage European integration.

Accordingly, the symposium identified three tasks (Council of Europe, 1973, p. 9):

(1) To analyze the foreign language needs of adults in Europe,

(2) to set up an operational specification of learning objectives for adult foreign language instruction, and

(3) to define the structure of a multi-media learning system for a unit/credit system of out-of-school education.

A committee of experts was subsequently appointed, under the leadership of J.L.M. Trim of Cambridge University in England, to carry out those tasks. Their ultimate goal was to set up a system of equivalent course sequences for the learning of any and all European languages by European adults and to work out a system of awarding credits for such learning which would be recognized all over Western Europe and Great Britain, a so-called unit/credit system.

By 1975, the committee had completed the needs assessment and published a list of specifications for the first certifiable stage of foreign language learning, which is called in English the Threshold level (T-level). These specifications are now available in equivalent versions for the learning of English (van Ek, 1975), French (Coste, 1976), and Spanish (Slagter, 1977), and others are under development.

This so-called T-level syllabus has caught the attention of foreign language teachers and theorists on both sides of the Atlantic. Even those unaware of this particular project have seen the terms "notional" and "functional," which are associated with the approach to foreign language teaching exemplified by the T-level syllabus, in brochures announcing some recently published language teaching materials. But what those terms mean and where they came from may not be well understood. The following discussion will, therefore, outline the development and content of the notional-functional T-level syllabus and how its principles have been applied in the preparation of new materials for teaching, in this case, English as a foreign language to adults. For fuller treatments of the issues and procedures involved, the reader should consult the references listed at the end of this article.

1. DEVELOPMENT OF THE T-LEVEL SYLLABUS

Charged with the task of developing a uniform system for teaching languages to adults throughout Europe, the committee set out to determine what those adults might have in common regarding their needs to learn and use foreign languages. Recent studies have shown that the more students feel that the language they are learning can be of immediate communicative use to them, the more motivated they will be to learn it well (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Savignon, 1972; Galyean, 1977; etc.). Thus, the committee's early efforts were devoted to surveying European adults about how they use, or could use, foreign languages in their businesses, social contacts, educational settings, etc.

René Richterich of Eurocenters in Neuchâtel was charged with developing the surveys, collating the responses, and preparing profiles from them of adult foreign language learners. Each profile indicated a typical learner's occupational or avocational purpose for using the foreign language, the general situations in which the language would probably be used, and the most common communicative acts that would need to be performed by such a person in that language. (See Richterich's article on needs assessment in Council of Europe, 1973, and Richterich and Chancerel, 1977, for details of his procedures.) In addition, some indication was given in the profile as to the relative importance of the four general skills of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing and as to what types of communicative activities would be related to each skill. For example, a profile for university students shows that they would need to speak and understand everyday conversation as well as the specialized language of academia; of somewhat less importance to them would be the ability to write in connection with the discipline studied (see Fig. 1). By way of contrast, a profile for agricultural workers shows less of a need to read than the student profile does.

These general profiles and models developed by Richterich were to serve as guides in the committee's major task of identifying a "common core" of language items that would enable learners to "maintain themselves in most everyday situations [in a foreign language environment], including situations for which they [had] not been specifically trained" (van Ek, 1975, p. 8). The committee felt strongly that instruction in grammatical patterns and vocabulary, though necessary, is insufficient to ensure the immediate communicative use of the language that most adult learners would expect and require. They therefore undertook a partly systematic, partly intuitive analysis of English to determine what interrelated elements it consists of and how those elements could be represented in the core of a language course. (See Trim et al., 1973, for a summary of these deliberations and the methods used.)

Their analysis, which is based in large part on speech act and information processing theories, produced five categories of language items:

semantic notions (concepts of entities in time and space),

communicative functions (what a speaker is trying to do by means of language),

topics (what is talked/written about),

Major category

Minor category 6-1: Agricultural workers	
Comments	Agricultural workers will need to know a foreign language only if they work abroad.
Understanding	--Will be required to understand a language of everyday communication and a fairly specialized language. (+)
Speaking	--Will be required to speak a language of everyday communication and a fairly specialized language. (+)
Reading	--Will be required to read certain documents in connection with daily life and the activities concerned. (o)
Writing	--Will be required to complete certain administrative forms. (o)

Major category
Non-agricultural workers and labourers and operators of transport appliances

Comments	Persons in this category will require a foreign language only if they work abroad.
Understanding	--Will be required to understand a language of everyday communication and a fairly specialized language according to the sector of industry. (+)
Speaking	--Will be required to speak a language of everyday communication and a fairly specialized language according to the sector of industry. (+)
Reading	--Will be required to read certain documents in connection with daily life and the activities concerned. (o)
Writing	--Will be required to complete certain administrative forms. (o)

Major category
Workers not classifiable by occupation

Minor category X-1: Students	
Comments	Students tend increasingly to pursue all or part of their studies in educational establishments abroad.
Understanding	--Will be required to understand a language of everyday communication and a specialized language according to the discipline studied. (+)
Speaking	--Will be required to speak a language of everday communication and a specialized language. (+)
Reading	--Will be required to read papers, articles and documents in connection with the discipline studied. Need for a specialized language. (+)
Writing	--Will be required to write texts in connection with the discipline studied. (o)

Figure 1. Profiles of Adult Language Learners' Needs (Trim et al., 1973)

situations (where the communication occurs and with whom), and

language activities (listening, speaking, reading, writing).

It is from the first two of these categories, which have not received much attention in traditional language courses, that the term "notational-functional" derives to characterize the committee's approach to foreign language course development. As van Ek (1977) has explained the overall scheme, "The basic characteristic of the model is that it tries to specify foreign language ability as a skill rather than knowledge. It analyzes what the learner will have to be able to *do* in the foreign language and determines only in the second place what *language-forms* (words, structures, etc.) the learner will have to be able to handle in order to *do* all that has been specified."

At first glance, this does not seem to depart significantly from the familiar dictum of Audiolingualism to "teach the language, not about the language." Yet it does indeed go a great deal further by giving top priority to learning how to use the foreign language for immediate and practical communication with native speakers. This is not merely the ability to put words into syntactic slots or even to produce snatches of memorized dialog in certain anticipated contexts. The goal here is appropriate sociolinguistic behavior--whether at a cocktail party, in a business conference, or on the phone--using a limited repertoire of lexical and syntactic elements to express one's intentions adequately.

The committee's final and most awesome task in preparing the T-level syllabus was, therefore, to distill the most common and least complex items from each of the five categories and fit them into a set of operational objectives for adult learners to achieve at the basic stages of foreign language learning. To some extent this has been accomplished in the two syllabuses, Threshold level (1975) and Waystage (1977), which have appeared so far. But the authors have stated repeatedly that these represent only tentative formulations that need to be tested and revised many times before they can be proven workable (Richterich and Chancerel, 1978, p. 5; van Ek, 1975, p. iii). And there is still a very long way to go before the committee's third task, that of outlining a multi-media foreign language learning system for all of Europe, is achieved. Nevertheless, the T-level syllabus and its associated publications have shed new light on the pedagogical implications of developments in the fields of socio- and psycholinguistics. Curriculum developers have been given a challenge to consider approaching foreign language course design from the learner's perspective of language use rather than from the teacher's perspective of structure.

2. CONTENT

A syllabus, as Europeans use the term, is a master list of all of the items and concepts which should be included in a course of instruction. It is not a series of lesson plans, as the term "syllabus" might denote in American academic usage. Therefore, the Waystage and T-level syllabuses consist mainly of lists or inventories of notions, functions, and topics appropriate to the communicative needs of adult foreign language learners with the following characteristics:

(1) they will be temporary visitors to the foreign country (especially tourists);

or (2) they will have temporary contacts with foreigners in their own country;

(3) their contacts with foreign language speakers will, on the whole, be of a superficial, non-professional type;

(4) they will primarily need only a basic level of command of the foreign language (van Ek, 1975, p. 9).

By "basic level" or T-level is meant the proficiency achieved after at least 250 hours of instruction. Realizing that some students might get discouraged before that goal was in sight, the committee outlined the content of an even more elementary "survival" level, called Waystage, which would not carry any credit but would guide the early stages of learning and instruction.

Neither the Waystage nor the Threshold-level syllabus tells the instructor how to teach the language items or in what order during a course. Each syllabus simply lists the items that have been distilled from the inventories of those commonly required by European adults in face-to-face foreign language situations. The fact that there has never before been such a list is what makes these syllabuses so interesting. It would be neither practical nor particularly useful here to give more than a sampling of some of the items listed in the T-level syllabus; however, that should suffice to demonstrate its scope and content.

The model upon which the T-level syllabus (van Ek, 1975) is based consists of eight components, each of which is either presented as an inventory or defined as a performance objective:

(1) *The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with.*

The situations, which are identified by Richterich's needs assessments and learner profiles, are subdivided into the four components of social roles (e.g., stranger to stranger, friend to friend), psychological roles (e.g., neutrality, equality, sympathy, antipathy), settings, and topics. While the topics tend to be of familiar traveler's-phrase-book type such a personal identification, occupation, travel, and leisure, the list of suggested settings provides an interesting dimension: outdoors/indoors, private life/public life, and human surroundings.

(2) *The language activities in which the learner will engage.*

These are traditional skills of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing, although the latter two are narrowly restricted for the T-level to such items as filling out forms and reading public notices. Only two pages of the T-level syllabus are devoted to describing and exemplifying these four skills.

(3) *The language functions which the learner will fulfill.*

The functions, which are pivotal to the communicative approach of the instruction envisioned by the committee, are subcategorized as:

(a) imparting and seeking factual information,
(b) expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes,
(c) expressing and finding out emotional attitudes,
(d) expressing and finding out moral attitudes,
(e) getting things done (suasion), and
(f) socializing.

It is one of the hallmarks of notional-functional textbooks to contain chapters bearing those categories as titles. Van Ek makes clear that this list is not meant to be exhaustive but to exemplify language functions which should be under the control of a T-level learner, no matter the foreign language being studied.

(4) *What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic.*

Here each of the topics listed earlier (e.g., identification, occupation, leisure activities) is given a set of behavioral specifications. So, for example, under the general topic of "health and welfare" one finds that among other things, learners should be able to "report illness, injury, accident; say whether they have been ill before and whether they have been operated upon; say whether they have to take medicine regularly, if so, what medicine..." (p. 25). This section is thus one of the most helpful in clarifying the objectives of T-level instruction and learning.

(5) *The general notions which the learner will be able to handle*, and

(6) *The specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able to handle.*

These sections are perhaps the most controversial because they represent an attempt to categorize the basic "concepts which people use in verbal communication" (p. 29) and to list them in a mere four pages. D.A. Wilkins, who contributed this section to the syllabus, later wrote a book entitled *Notional Syllabuses* (Wilkins, 1976) in which he listed, with very little empirical support, over 300 so-called notions and argued for basing language courses on their subcategories rather than on such grammar categories as parts of speech and verb tenses. His arguments for doing so are persuasive from a pedagogical standpoint, if not from a scientific one, claiming as they do that learners will be more highly motivated by materials that teach them *what* to communicate rather than merely *how*. But later writers (e.g., Widdowson, 1979) have objected that providing a list of notions and some ways of expressing them can no more guarantee that the learners will be able to communicate in the foreign language than does providing them with sentence patterns or dialogs to memorize.

In any case, the general notions, which are given here under the three categories of entities, properties and qualities, and relations, do seem to provide a sounder basis than word-frequency lists for selecting the vocabulary to be taught.

(7) *The language forms which the learner will be able to use.*

Here the T-level syllabus becomes language-specific, listing the English phrases and syntactic patterns needed for expressing the kinds of notions and functions given earlier. This section makes up nearly one-third of the entire syllabus. Each item or pattern listed is labelled P or R to indicate whether the learner should be able to *produce* or merely *recognize* and comprehend it.

For example, in the section on functions entitled "Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes," one subdivision is "seeking permission." Listed there (p. 39) are the following:

May I	+	VP	P
Can I	+	VP	R
Let me	+	VP	R
Do you mind	+	if-clause	R

(VP stands for verb phrase.) This indicates that the learner would be expected to be able to use the first item by the time T-level is attained but only to comprehend the other three in a conversation.

This section of the syllabus also represents a unique contribution to the specification of the content of foreign language courses; seldom has such a complete and explicit inventory been provided for the teacher and course designer. Included here, too, are most of the recommended vocabulary items, each of which is associated with a general notion and labelled P or R to indicate the type of control the learner should have over it at T-level.

(8) *The degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.*

In a scant three pages, van Ek discusses the problems associated with specifying criteria for foreign language communication and assessing the attainment. He leaves it to others to develop valid and reliable methods of measuring T-level proficiency in a manner that will lead to the awarding or withholding of credits within the language-teaching scheme to be set in place all over Europe. Chaplen (1975) presented a more thorough discussion of the issues to the committee. Some promising instruments are under development in Britain and elsewhere (see, for example, ELTDU and British Council).

Two appendices complete the T-level syllabus: an alphabetical list of the lexicon cross-referenced to the earlier sections, and an inventory of the grammatical content. Together they make up one-half of the entire syllabus, a fact which might reassure those who are dubious about organizing foreign language instruction on the basis of notions and functions rather than grammar and vocabulary for fear that correctness will be sacrificed to communicative expendiency.

3. APPLICATIONS

However tentatively the T-level syllabus may have been put forward by its developers, it has inspired some curriculum designers and textbook authors to put its principles to use. John Munby (1978) has followed Richterich's lead and devised a very detailed survey instrument for determining learners' foreign language needs as a basis for designing courses in Language for Specific Purposes. British and German radio-television networks have cooperatively designed *Follow Me* (BBC, 1978) as a multi-media course in English for German adults, according to proposals worked out by the Council of Europe committee. And several textbooks for English as a Second Language with a notional-functional orientation have been published in the United States as well as in Europe. (See part D of the Selected References). While it is perhaps too early to judge the effectiveness of such materials, it is possible to outline some of the characteristics that distinguish them from materials based on other approaches to foreign language teaching.

As noted earlier, the most obvious difference between courses and materials based on a lexico-grammatical analysis of language and those based on notional-functional principles is in the titles given to units or chapters. The former often produces units on "The Modal Auxiliaries" or "At the Library" where more or less creative attempts are made to build an instructional sequence around certain grammatical or idiomatic patterns. Notional-functional units on the other hand, tend to bear such titles as "Saying What You Feel" or "Getting People to Do Things" (Andrews, 1977) with emphasis on communicative interaction. One technique associated with teaching notional-functional units is role-playing, where students are encouraged to take on various social roles and generate discourse that is appropriate in a realistic situation. While this technique itself is not new, the accompanying discussions of conversational gambits, the relative status of each role to the others, levels of formality, etc., do characterize a shift in focus from the word or sentence to the level of connected, contextualized discourse.

It is perhaps just this shift that makes the notional-functional approach at once both appealing and daunting to many FL teachers. When a committee in Europe claims to have identified *all* of the basic elements that should be learned by anyone wanting to use *any* foreign language for practical purposes, the experienced teacher is intrigued. Yet, when one looks into the T-level syllabus and sees only lists of phrases, notions, functions, and vocabulary items, one realizes how much work is still ahead of the course designer or textbook writer in selecting and sequencing the items and combining them into interesting, teachable lessons. The notional-functional syllabus could thus be called a *pre*-syllabus, as W.R. Lee (1979) has termed it.

The fact that, despite the initial promise of the Council of Europe committee's work, few courses or texts have been wholly based on its principles in the five years since the T-level syllabus appeared would seem to indicate that it has very limited application outside of the project for which it was developed. That is not to say, however, that the foreign language profession should turn its back on the notional-functional approach and look elsewhere for something to fill the vacuum left by the passing of strict Audiolingualism from the scene. The addition to every FL course of some measure of attention to the semantic and social aspects of language use would be reason enough for the committee to feel that its hard work had been of great value and for the profession to feel that progress in curriculum development is still possible.

REFERENCES

A. Some Council of Europe Publications
(in chronological order)

NB: Council of Europe publications are available from Manhattan Publishing Company, 225 Lafayette Street, New York, NY 10012.

Trim, J.L.M., 1970, *The Systems Approach to Language Teaching.* DECS/EGT (70) 4.

_____, 1971, *Modern Language Learning in Adult Education.* Report to the Ruschlikon Symposium. CCC/EES (71) 135.

Bung, K., 1973, *The Specification of Objectives in a Language-Learning System for Adults.* CCC/EES (73) 34.

Trim, J.L.M., R. Richterich, J.A. van Ek, and D.A. Wilkins, 1973, *Systems Development in Adult Language Learning.*

van Ek, J.A., 1975, *The Threshold Level.*

Chaplen, E.F., 1975, *Measuring Achievement in Adult Language Learning.* CCC/EES (75) 73.

Nowachek, R., and J.A. van Ek, 1975, *Threshold Level Test, Austria 1975.* CCC/EES (75) 58.

van Ek, J.A., 1976, *Threshold Level Test, Austria 1976.* CCC/EES (76) 33.

Trim, J.L.M., 1976, *The Council of Europe's Unit/Credit Scheme for the Learning of Foreign Languages by Adults and Its Implications for Language Studies in Universities.* CCC/EES (76) 21.

Richterich, René and Jean-Luis Chancerel, 1977, *Identifying the Needs of Adults Learning a Foreign Language.*

Trim, J.L.M., 1977, *Report on Some Possible Lines of Development of an Overall Structure for a European Unit/Credit Scheme for Foreign-Language Learning by Adults.* CCC/EES (77) 19.

van Ek, J.A., and L.G. Alexander, 1977, *Waystage: an Interdisciplinary Objective Below Threshold-Level.*

Alexander, L.G., 1977, *Some Methodological Implications of Waystage and Threshold Level*. CCC/EES (77) 13-E.

Trim, J.L.M., 1978, *Some Possible Lines of Development of an Overall Structure for a European Unit/Credit Scheme for Foreign Language Learning by Adults.*

B. Related Council of Europe Syllabuses

Coste, Daniel, Janine Courtillon, Victor Ferenczi, Michel Martins-Baltar, Elaine Papo, and Eddy Roulet, 1976, *Systèmes d'apprentissage des langues vivantes par les adultes: un niveau-seuil. Guide to use.* (Available in English or French.)

Slagter, Paul, 1977, *Un Nivel Umbral para un Sistema de Unidades Acumulables de Aprendizaje de Lenguas para Adultos, Elaborado y Adaptado para el Español.*

van Ek, J.A., 1977, *The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools.* London: Longman Group Ltd.

C. Critiques and Applications

Alexander, L.G., 1979, "A Functional/Notional Approach to Course Design," *Audio-Visual Language Journal* 17:109-112.

_____, 1976, "Where Do We Go from Here? A Reconsideration of Some Basic Assumptions Affecting Course Design," in *English Language Teaching Journal* 32:89-103.

The British Council, English Language Division, 1978, *An English Language Testing Service: Specifications.* London: The British Council. Memograph.

Brumfit, Christopher J., 1979, "Notional Syllabuses--A Reassessment," *System* 7:111-116.

Campbell, Russell N., William E. Rutherford, Mary Finocchiaro, and Henry G. Widdowson, 1978, "Notional-Functional Syllabuses: 1978," in Brown, H. Douglas and Ruth Crymes, eds., *On TESOL 1978.* Washington, D.C.: TESOL 15-35.

Currie, William B., 1975, "European Syllabuses in English as a Foreign Language," *Language Learning* 25:339-354.

ELTDU, 1975, *Stages of Attainment Scale and Test Battery.* Bicester, England: English Language Teaching Development Unit.

Galyean, Beverly, 1977, "A Confluent Design for Language Teaching," *TESOL Quarterly* 11:143-156.

Gardner, Robert C., and Wallace E. Lambert, 1972, *Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Johnson, Keith, 1977, "The Adoption of Functional Syllabuses for General Language Teaching Courses," *The Canadian Modern Language Review* 33:667-680.

Lee, William, R., 1979, "Pre-Syllabuses and Syllabuses in the Light of the Learner's Opportunities, Aims, and Needs," *Glotto-Didactica* 12:121-125.

Munby, John, 1978, *Communicative Syllabus Design: A Sociolinguistic Model for Defining the Content of Purpose-Specific Language Programmes.* Cambridge University Press.

Nickel, Gerhard, 1975, "Problems of Syllabus, Curriculum and Testing in Connection with Modern Language Programmes for Adult Europe," in Jones, Randall L., and Bernard Spolsky, eds., *Testing Language Proficiency.* Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 131-137.

Page, Brian, 1979, "Notions, Functions and Threshold Levels: A Review of the Significance for Language Teachers of the Work of the Council of Europe," *Audio-Visual Language Journal* 17:115-121.

Savignon, Sandra, 1972, *Communicative Competence: An Experiment in Foreign-Language Teaching.* Philadelphia: The Center for Curriculum Development.

Shaw, A.M., 1977, "Foreign-Language Syllabus Design: Some Recent Approaches," *Language Teaching and Linguistics: Abstracts* 10:217-233.

Valdman, Albert, 1978, "Communicative Use of Language and Syllabus Design," *Foreign Language Annals* 11:567-578.

Widdowson, H.G., 1979, *Explorations in Applied Linguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wilkins, D.A., 1976, *Notional Syllabuses: A Taxonomy and Its Relevance to Foreign Language Curriculum Development.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

D. Some Notional-Functional Texts for English

Andrews, John, 1977, *Say What You Mean in English.* Walton-on-Thames: Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd. Elementary to intermediate levels. Two Texts, Workbooks, Teacher's Books, Cassettes.

BBC, 1978, *Follow Me.* (English for German Adults.) London: British Broadcasting Corporation.

Castro, Oscar, Victoria Kimbrough, Francisco Lozano, and Jane Sturtevant, 1980, *In Touch.* New York: Longman. All levels. Six Texts, Teacher's Manuals, Workbooks, Cassettes.

Doff, Adrian and Christopher, Johne, 1980, *Feelings.* Cambridge University Press. Upper-intermediate level. Text, Teacher's Book, Cassette.

IML, 1980, *Speak English.* Silver Spring, Maryland: Institute of Modern Languages. Beginning level. Texts, Cassettes, Workbooks, Tests.

Jones, Leo, 1979, *Functions of English*. Cambridge University Press. Upper-intermediate level. Text, Cassette.

_____, 1980, *Notions in English*. Cambridge University Press. Upper-intermediate level. Text, Cassette.

Maley, Alan, and Alan Duff, 1978, *Variations on a Theme*. Cambridge University Press. Upper-intermediate level. Text, Cassette.

Morrow, Keith, and Keith Johnson, 1980, *Communicate*. Cambridge University Press. Intermediate level. Two Texts, Teacher's Books, Cassettes.

Peck, Anthony, and Kit Pech, 1980, *Threshold English*. London: Evans. Beginning level. Text, Flash Cards, Teacher's Guide.

FUNCTIONS OF GRAMMAR IN A LANGUAGE TEACHING SYLLABUS[1]

WILLIAM E. RUTHERFORD
American Language Institute
University of Southern California
Los Angeles, California

Studies in Language Learning (1983), 4, 14-32.

0. Much has been said over the years about the nature of the grammatical contribution to the second-language learning experience. Discussion of this kind shows that various degrees of weight have been proposed for grammatical matter relative to functional matter. These possible grammar-function ratios group roughly into four. It seems that any formal language-learning experience would have to be one of the following: (1) grammar-based and without functional focus, (2) grammar-based but with functional focus, (3) function-based but with grammatical focus, and (4) function-based and without grammatical focus. Commercially-produced materials that exemplify the four categories will no doubt be familiar to the general reader.

Empirical evidence bearing on these categories is another matter. For the effectiveness of a grammar-based experience with no functional focus there seems to be no supporting evidence. This is also true of the function-based experience with no grammatical focus, although vigorous arguments have been offered in support of this position (Newmark, 1970; Newmark and Reibel, 1970). What reliable evidence there is in this general area applies to the possibilities for tandem grammar-function focus (categories 2 and 3 above). A useful summary of this research is provided by Canale and Swain (1980), which leads them to the opinion that although "focus on grammatical competence in the classroom is not a sufficient condition for the development of communicative competence, it would be inappropriate...to conclude...that the development of grammatical competence is irrelevant to or unnecessary for the development of communicative competence..." (p. 13). Other, related conclusions drawn by Canale and Swain, based upon scansion of this same body of research, are that there should be emphasis on both grammatical accuracy and meaningful communication from the onset of second-language study, that early meaningful verbal communication is not possible without some grammatical knowledge, and that if the goal of language learning is communicative competence then the language teaching syllabus must integrate aspects of both grammar and function. Following from all this could be, one might say, a general conclusion that in the second-language learning experience language as a formal system must be taken note of in some way. On the face of it, this would not appear to be a very startling affirmation, given that language, whatever else it may be, is certainly also the embodiment of a formal system and that any use to which language may be put entails the activation of that system. The real issue, however, is how knowledge of the system is to be imparted to the learner. In other words, what does it mean to "focus" on grammar? What are the ways by which one may "take note" of language system in syllabus planning? It is to these broad questions that I wish to address this paper. In the sections that follow we will first examine the various roles which grammatical consciousness can assume in the planning stages of a language teaching syllabus, followed by examples of learning activities that can engender unconscious awareness of crucial aspects of language organization. We will then consider what modification these roles might undergo in the course of future research.

1. Grammatical consciousness in pedagogy is closely bound up with the answers to two basic questions: What is it that is to be brought to consciousness? and How is it to be done? The "what" question is the pedagogical extension of "What do we know about how language is organized and how it serves communication?" The "how" question is the pedagogical extension of "What do we know about how language learning takes place?"

1.1 It will be suggested here that what it is of language system that is available for pedagogical consideration is a richer resource than is customarily recognized, if cursory inspection of current commercial language teaching materials is an accurate indication.

1.1.1 Pedagogical attention to language form is rooted in a conception of language whose formalism is directly manifested in discrete entities such as the familiar bound morphemes, parts of speech, verb tense, clausal units, sentence types, etc. It is therefore a relatively easy matter to let such entities constitute points of focus in the teaching syllabus, or units to be "mastered," so to speak (Rutherford, 1980). Underlying this approach is usually the tacit assumption that successful language learning is equivalent in large part to the cumulative mastery of sequentially introducing such units. And more recently, of course, the "unit-accumulation" approach has been extended to include varieties of so-called language "functions." (For discussion of this, see Widdowson, 1978; Rutherford, 1978.) That language system could be conceived for pedagogical purposes as a structural taxonomy is not surprising, however, given (1) that language pedagogy is still under the influence of the pre-transformational linguistic paradigm (Kuhn, 1970) in which language system is defined exclusively as the hierarchical distribution of language constituents, and (2) that what is most readily available in language system for immediate conscious inspection, by teacher and learner alike, are these same constituents of surface syntax, morphology, and phonology. Largely absent then from the thinking that goes into language pedagogy are the notions (a) that there are unobservable properties of language system that are crucial to its implementation, and (b) that pedagogical attention to language system need not of necessity lead automatically to classroom attention. A long characteristic of language pedagogy has been the conversion of observable discrete language entities into observable discrete language learning material, and I would like to suggest that such practices even at best reveal an impoverished view of what language system really is, at least to the extent that we can presently know it.

1.1.2 What then are some of these properties with respect to English? The nonnative learner who has acquired the ability to communicate in English must "know" in at least some passive, tacit, intuitive sense the following salient characteristics of the English language (Thompson, 1978):

(1) that the category "subject," as distinct from "topic," is basic to canonical sentence form;

(2) that (preverbal) subject position must always be filled;

(3) that the obligatory filling of subject position and stable SVO constituent order require that there be an extensive battery of movement rules (i.e., structure-preserving transformations; Emonds, 1976) for maintaining these positional relationships;

(4) that it is common, contrary to what is possible in many other languages, to have rhematic material (i.e., bearing a heavy information load) in subject position;

(5) that if a noun phrase immediately preceding a verb is not the grammatical subject of that verb then the verb must be marked (e.g., as an infinitival: persuade NP *to go*); and

(6) that in order to maintain the subject before the lexical verb in questions a rule of *do*-support is invoked.

The net effect of these characteristics, as Thompson points out, is to make of English a language in which word-order functions almost exclusively to signal grammatical rather than pragmatic relationships. And these word-order requirements produce a surface constituent order that is often very different from the order of elements within the corresponding propositional content. Hawkins (1980) states that "English speakers have, in effect, more work to do in extracting meaning from form. They must systematically exclude contextually inappropriate interpretations from ambiguous and semantically diverse surface structures; they must reconstruct semantic argument-predicate relations over often large syntactic domains; and they must infer semantically relevant material which is not present in surface form" (p. 46).

1.1.3 Also crucial to the effective use of language but not necessarily observable at the surface would be the question of through what means the target language conceptualizes reality. For example, temporal reference in English is encoded into an elaborate system that is notoriously resistant to the "item-unit" approach (1.1.1) for learning purposes. For the system to take hold it needs to be perceived as a system. This cannot be achieved in piecemeal fashion simply because temporal reference is not an entity built up out of subconstituents but rather a code network that realizes through language one important area of cognition, viz, the perception of time. (See Sharwood-Smith, 1978, for a particularly good illustration of this. See also Clark, 1973, for a cognitive accounting of temporal and spatial deixis.)

An even better example of the mistake of trying to impart the whole through a set of contrived constituent parts is what is usually done in language pedagogy with the English determiner system, separate "rules" for which tally close to fifty in one particular language teaching text. Entry into the system for the learner will not be through sets of rules, sequenced or not, but rather through cognitive correlates of the determiner system such as presupposition and raising-to-consciousness (Rutherford, 1980). Again, the conceptualization of reality through language is not amenable to an item-unit approach in language pedagogy.

1.1.4 One final principle of language organization that is crucial to language use but cannot be accommodated within the item-unit pedagogic paradigm is that of "relationship." A simple two-sentence passage will serve here as an illustration of the kind of relationships that obtain both intra- and extralinguistically in any piece of text (Munby, 1978; Halliday and Hansan, 1976) and that must be grasped if communication is to take place: "One characteristic of wars in general is that often nobody wins. Somebody did, however, in the American Revolution, but even this conflagration is said to have taken a heavy toll on both sides." The comprehension of this passage entails, among other things, that the following relationships be perceived: (1) of hyponymy, as between "war" and "American Revolution"; (2) of anaphora, as between "American Revolution" and "conflagration"; (3) of contrast, as signaled by "but"; (4) of contradiction, as conveyed by "somebody did"; and (5) of major category to surrogate, as between "win" and "do." Moreover "conflagration" must be seen to be in a subject relationship to "take," which is "said" in the passive must be understood as something like "This conflagration took a heavy toll," and "heavy toll" must be perceived as in an object relationship to "take." Even more, of course, could be pointed out, such as the relation between semantic concept and syntactic realization mentioned earlier. The inculcation of an awareness of such relationships is of great importance for successful language learning, but once again they represent aspects of language organization that are not amenable to pedagogical itemization.

1.2 Consideration of how grammatical knowledge is to be imparted addressed the second of the two questions posed in 1.1, and once again I will suggest that the available means for attempting this outnumber those that actually find their way into published material.

1.2.1 Perception of language system as a taxonomy of discrete units can, as we have said, lead quite understandably to conversion of such language units into teaching units. One obvious assumption underlying this sort of conversion is that the grammar must be "visible," so to speak, in order for it to be effectively mastered. But visibility, in turn, is all the more easily accomplished given a view of language that can conveniently isolate its putative constituents. Thus the item-unit conception of language system and the notion that language system needs to call attention to itself for pedagogical purposes go hand in hand, as it were.

One result of this relationship has been the development of a rather elaborate set of heuristics for the teaching of grammatical content. For convenience, we can plot these on a kind of grid, along whose vertical side are listed the language forms or structures included in the syllabus (e.g., the comparative, subject relative clause, embedded question, etc.) and whose horizontal side is given over to the specification of four parameters: *method*, *approach*, *procedure*, and *technique*. Taking as an example the possible treatments of the English passive, one would consider whether the passive should be shown (a) as a derivative of something else, i.e., the active (a *process*); (b) as related to something, e.g., the active (a *relationship*); (c) as the result of a special co-occurrence, e.g., that a noun phrase marked "object" occupy subject position if no other noun phrase is available (a *condition*); or (d) as a sequence of certain items pertaining to specific word classes, with a list of items belonging to the governing class, i.e., that of the verb (a *pattern* with an optional *list*). Under *technique* one would consider whether the selected procedure should be imparted by means of a labeled box, a modified case frame, a phrase structure tree, a certain bracketing convention, a contrast with a related structure or with selected ungrammaticality, natural examples, or verbal description. By *method* it is suggested that the entire treatment can be effected by *induction* or *deduction*, or a combination thereof. The plotting of all these parameters can be represented graphically (see Fig. 1).

Without necessarily denying the usefulness of calling pedagogical attention to itemizable features of language in the manner just noted, it is nonetheless important, I think, to recognize that the general set of heuristics that we share in this endeavor has been shaped in large part by our beliefs, conscious or unconscious, about what language actually is and how it is put together.

STRUCTURE	METHOD	APPROACH	PROCEDURE	TECHNIQUE
•	(induction)	(formation)	(relationship)	(PS tree)
•	(deduction)	(use)	(process)	(labeled box)
•			(condition)	(case frame)
•			(pattern/list)	(bracketing)
•				(contrast)
•				(examples)
•				(description)

Figure 1.

1.2.2 Now the important language attributes cited in 1.1.2-4 are considerably less amenable to the kind of treatment schematized in Fig. 1. Processes, concepts, systems, and relationships are not entities. They cannot conveniently or sensibly be singled out, identified, exemplified, labeled, and described. Attempts to do so can produce a kind of language-system focus for pedagogical purposes that is either self-defeating (e.g., the reduction of the English determiner system to a vast catalogue of rules) or meaningless (e.g., "Sentences are formed from words" (Samuelson, 1976, p. 40)), or both. But if these aspects of language organization cannot profitably be brought into the open, as it were, then what place do they have in the language teaching syllabus? If you can't fit it into the presentation-explication-exploitation frame then what else is there to say about it? I would like to suggest that not only are there ways of "focusing" on language-organizational principles such as these without actually calling direct attention to them but also that it is often perhaps better to bypass such attention.

Language teaching research has for some time been questioning the wisdom of teaching grammatical formulations for their own sake--be they rules, diagrams, formulas, or what have you. Just as important as how a certain construction is put together, if not more so, is what we use it for, or why we choose to employ this construction in a particular context and not some other syntactically different but supposedly semantically "equivalent" one. (See Bolinger, 1977, for a scathing indictment of the notion that a semantic constant can be realized through syntactic alternatives.) Chafe (1976) refers to the relaization of meaning in syntactic form as "packaging." Now although the form in which propositional content is packaged may be influenced by a number of factors, one very important factor is certainly the discourse requirements for the distribution of "given" and "new" information (Halliday, 1967). The given/new "contract" (Clark and Haviland, 1977) is not limited to complex language, nor is it a language principle that can be grasped only after some prerequisite amount of language learning has taken place. As a basic organizing principle, the given/new contract is in force for all of the language, from the very simple to the very complex. Therefore, if it makes more sense in language acquisition, as some have claimed (Givón, 1979; Hatch, 1978), to conceive of the mastery of syntax as deriving from the use of discourse rather than the other way round, then it would also make sense in language pedagogy to promote understanding of syntactic rules as one means to achieving textual cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), or as instantiations of choices made at the level of discourse, and to do this from the very beginning of instruction.

1.2.3 How might one go about this? Keeping in mind a fundamental requirement of "subject-prominent" English (Li and Thompson, 1976), that subject position in full clauses be occupied, and that the choice of what should fill subject position is determined by principles of discourse coherence, it is not difficult to devise a basically simple practice in which the student exercises precisely this kind of choice (Rutherford, 1976). The semantic content of the practice material (which for demonstration purposes can be of a scientific nature) might be laid out in this fashion:

(1) (a) be - natural numbers - symbols for cardinal numbers
(b) allow - natural number system - two binary operations
(c) call - addition and multiplication - operations

Such an arrangement, which is somewhat reminiscent of case-grammar representation (Fillmore, 1968), puts the verb root on the left and strings out its associated noun phrases (minus their determiners) in random order to the right. Through this kind of display one can avoid the bias of pre-selected sentence word-order, since, after all, word-order choices--which activate so much of the grammatical machinery of English--are what we want to get the student himself to make. The student therefore selects a noun phrase to be moved into subject position (e.g., *natural numbers* in (1a)), chooses for all noun phrases determiners that are compatible with the given/new contract (e.g., "zero" for generic in (1a)), decides on an appropriate verb tense (e.g., present), and applies the necessary rules of concord, thus producing

(2a) Natural numbers are symbols for cardinal numbers.

In (1b) the given/new contract constrains the choice of subject to *natural number system* plus the definite article (or a deictic element like *this*) and the verb tense is still present:

(2b) The natural number system allows two binary operations.

In (1c), however, where the choice of subject is limited by the given/new contract to *operations* (plus the definite article or a deictic element like *these*), the subject-verb relationship is such that the verb has of course to occur in the passive:

(2c) These operations are called addition and multiplication.

If there is no noun phrase available for subjecthood, e.g., where *be* is the verb and only one noun phrase is associated with it (e.g., *be - another solution to the problem*), the student learns that the filling of subject position is still so strong that a "dummy" (i.e., *there*) has to occupy that position (*There is another solution to the problem*). If the noun phrase has a relative clause attached (e.g., *the problem that we just discussed*), it can be represented in full underlying sentence form (*the problem* [*We just discussed the problem*]). And if the noun phrase to be selected happens to dominate a sentence (*necessary* - [*One finds a solution to the problem*]), the student can learn not just the role of extraposition but the principle of "end weight" (Quirk et al., 1972) which the rule of extraposition serves (*It is necessary to find a solution to the problem*). If we add adverbial clauses to the propositional strings and supply the necessary transitional cohesion markers (e.g., *therefore*, *however*, *and*, *but*, *so*, etc.), we come close to being able informally to represent any propositional content in a display that allows the student to exercise the crucial discourse-determined syntactic choices. The following example shows one paragraph source (Adler, 1959, p. 27) and its suggested schematized rendition:

(3) (a) "[1]Arabic numerals displaced all others because of their great convenience. [2]They are most convenient to use because they give us a way of writing an indefinite amount of numbers while using only a small number of symbols called *digits*. [3]This feat is accomplished by attaching different meanings to the same digit. [4]In the number 111, three ones are used, and [5]each has a different meaning. [6]The 1 on the extreme right stands for the number *one*. [7]The 1 in the second column from the right stands for the number *ten*, and [8]the 1 in the third column stands for the number *one hundred*. [9]The symbol stands for the sum of one, ten, and one hundred. [10]Because the meaning of a digit depends on its position in the written numeral, we say the Arabic system of numerals is a *place value* system."

(b) 1 displace - all other - Arabic numberals - because of their great convenience
2 convenient to use - they - because they give us a way of writing an indefinite amount of numbers while using only a small number of symbols called digits
3 accomplish - [One attached different meanings to the same digit] - this feat
4 use - three ones - number 111
and
5 have - each - different meaning
6 stand for - number *one* - 1 on the extreme right
7 stand for - number *ten* - 1 in the second column from the right
and
8 stand for - number *one hundred* - 1 in the third column
9 stand for - symbol - sum of one, ten, and one hundred
10 say - we - because the meaning of a digit depends on its position in the written numeral - [be - Arabic system - place value system]

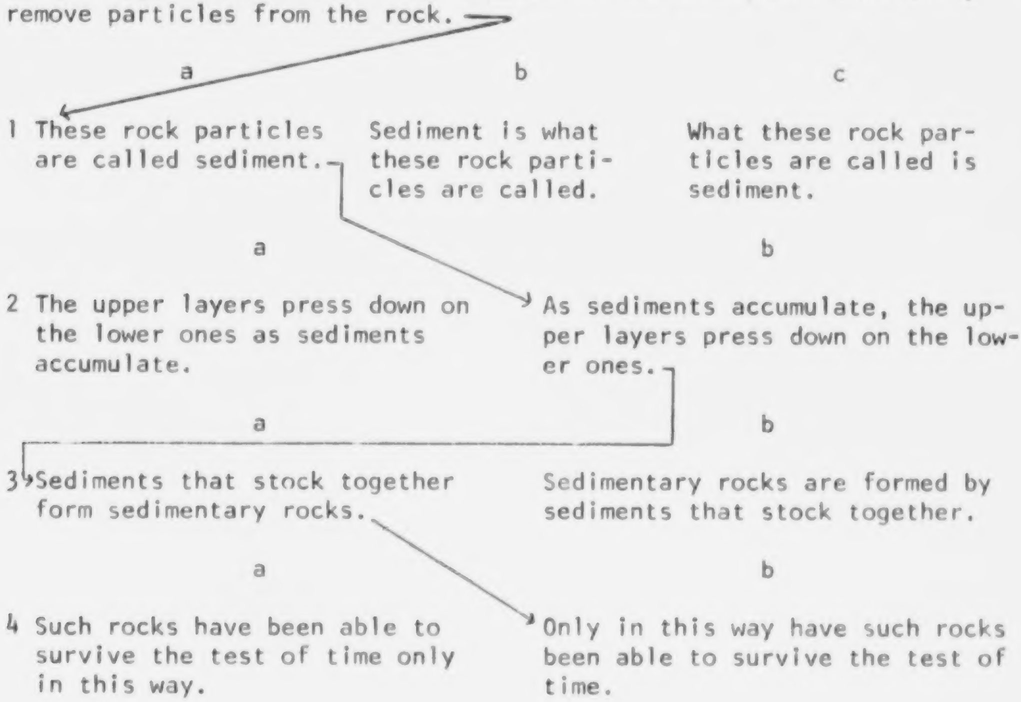
Appropriate syntactic choices need not of course always be realized as in (3a). In (3b4), for example, the author of the original passage triggered the passive by putting *three ones* in subject position, thus leaving (*in*) *number*

111 as a locative, but then fronted the locative itself, since "three ones" is given information, i.e., an example of "the same digit" from the previous sentence. Alternatively, *number 111* could have been selected as the subject, with no further movement, thus producing *The number 111 uses three ones.* What is important for a learner to grasp, however, is the basic principle that any preverbal noun phrase in English that is not the subject of the adjacent verb must be marked as such. Hence the retention, or not, of *in* when *the number 111* occurs preverbally: as the subject *the number 111* occurs without *in*; as a fronted locative it occurs with *in*. In the exercise as a whole it is the constant promotion of noun phrases to subjecthood that strengthens the learner's sense of the obligatoriness of filling subject position, without the necessity of extracting the principle itself for special focus and/or explanation.

It is possible to devise other classroom activities that depend upon successful invocation of the given/new contract. One of these is a variation of the well-known "strip story" activity (Gibson, 1975), in which each student is handed a single sentence of a little written narrative and then has to contribute to the reconstruction of the story by determining, through verbal communication with his classmates, where his own sentence occurs in the narrative sequence. This same problem-solving activity can be utilized in the teaching, say, of English for science and technology, with the order or propositional content across the individual sentences now being determined not by the logical sequence of events but rather by the given/new contract exclusively. In other words, students would collectively reconstruct the original passage through consideration (probably unconsciously) of presuppositions and what has been raised to consciousness, as this is reflected through the selection of determiners and the use of anaphora. A passage such as (3a) would serve very well for this kind of activity.

There are still other classroom activities for imparting a knowledge of grammatical machinery by means of discourse principles that the machinery is designed to serve. One of these will suffice here, a technique first suggested in Gleason (1965) and further developed in Rutherford (1977). Students are asked to choose among alternative syntactic arrangements that realize essentially the same propositional content--a choice, in other words, among sentence versions that place the same semantic content in different positions. But what determines the appropriate position is what has been expressed immediately preceding. A certain discourse context is established through one or two sentences that open a stretch of text and then each succeeding sentence is laid out as a set of options where the information content has been arranged in several possible orders and the necessary grammatical operations invoked (i.e., movement rules) in order to realize these alternative arrangements as full, roughly "equal" grammatical sentences. The student has only to trace a path through these successive sets of alternatives--letting the discourse requirements for the placement of new and given information lead the way--until he reaches the end of the text. An example of such an activity would be the following; the information content taken from Brandwein et al. (1968):

(4) Weathering and erosion of rock exposed to the atmosphere constantly remove particles from the rock.



	a	b	c
1	These rock particles are called sediment.	Sediment is what these rock particles are called.	What these rock particles are called is sediment.
2	The upper layers press down on the lower ones as sediments accumulate.	As sediments accumulate, the upper layers press down on the lower ones.	
3	Sediments that stock together form sedimentary rocks.	Sedimentary rocks are formed by sediments that stock together.	
4	Such rocks have been able to survive the test of time only in this way.	Only in this way have such rocks been able to survive the test of time.	

1.3 The activities in 1.2.2 are intended to make several contributions to the learning of English, expecially written English:

(a) sharpen learner perceptions of crucial principles of language arrangement;
(b) engender an understanding of the use of grammatical rules as the syntactic means for realizing discoursal objectives;
(c) demonstrate the overriding importance of the use of word-order to signal grammatical relationships; and
(d) foster awareness of the tight "syntacticization" (Givón, 1979) that distinguishes planned from unplanned language use.

Although the language activities just outlined involve the application of syntactic rules and the manipulation of syntactic structures, these events are not the real purpose of the activity. The purpose, of course, is to apply principles of discourse in the selection and ordering of semantic content, that content being thereby assigned the required syntactic form. But if syntactic realization falls short while all else is satisfactory, the effort might still be considered a successful one, for it is the discourse criteria which must first be met. In other words, in choosing between a textual arrangement that correctly implemented the given/new contract but contained malformed syntactic constructions, and an arrangement that repeatedly violated the given/new contract but otherwise was a paragon of wellformedness, one would value the former more highly than the latter. This is so because communication is less likely to suffer in the former instance than in the latter. It must be admitted, however, that reflections upon this kind of pedagogical role for grammar are of only very recent origin, and we will presently consider what directions such investigations might take in the near future.

2. I think it would be fair to say that all attempts to let attention to language form influence, to whatever extent, the shape of the language syllabus are, in effect, attempts (either conscious or unconscious) to influence language learning strategies. Although the strategies that a learner employs in his language learning experience can of course only be inferred from his behavior, still a number of them have been adduced through research and experimentation. These include the so-called strategies of transfer (both positive and negative), avoidance, overgeneralization, simplification, prefabricated patterns, and others, a useful summary of which can be found in Brown (1980). (See Seliger (1980) for an eloquent appeal to language researchers for a more principled use of the term "strategy.")

2.1 Let us consider the matter of transfer. Until very recently it was customary to suppose that mother tongue transfer was in force whenever the learner's "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972) manifested a form (1) that was similar to a surface form in his native tongue and (2) that was not present, or present to a much lesser degree, in the interlanguage of learners with other native languages. More recently, however, it has been shown that the occurrence of transfers need not be tied at all to the first of these two conditions where acquisition of L2 interlanguage form has been influenced by L1 discourse features that do not show up in a one-to-one syntactic cross-language comparison (Huebner, 1978; Schmidt, 1978; Schachter and Rutherford, 1979). Is it reasonable then to expect that there might be other instances of transfer that are not inferable from inspection of cross-language surface characteristics--other instances of transfer across language typological features, for example, as predicted by Hakuta (1979)? To narrow the question a little more, given the fact that English represents an extreme case of a language that makes use of word-order almost exclusively to signal grammatical rather than pragmatic relationships (Thompson, 1978), what sorts of characteristics might show up in the interlanguage production of learners whose mother tongues do not exhibit this typological feature (the vast majority of the languages of the world, as far as we know) and who are devising strategies for mastering it in English? Since this overriding grammatical word-order typological attribute of English necessitates that there be a large battery of rules for moving constituents around to satisfy discourse requirements while at the same time maintaining the positional relationships of subject, verb, and object, one might therefore predict that errors will occur that violate precisely these relationships. Although no research, to my knowledge, has been conducted for the purpose of testing such a hypothesis, it is interesting to look back at some of the kinds of errors that *have* been documented in past studies and the kinds of explanation offered for them.

One of the largest repositories of learner error types in English is *The Goofícon* (Burt and Kiparsky, 1972). The authors divide their book into six chapters each corresponding to a major area of English syntax (e.g., the auxiliary, passives, sentential complement, etc.) and they subdivide each of these chapters into specific "goof types," which for the whole book add up to sixty-four. What is interesting is that of these sixty-four types no fewer than twenty-four, or nearly forty percent, can be analyzed (in the absence of context of any other essential information) as failure in one way or another to correctly observe the various rules, constraints, or requirements that are a direct consequence of the abstract typological organization of English discussed earlier. Although these errors were not attributed to learners with particular native languages, there are enough hints in the book to suggest that the authors do not consider many of the errors to be developmental (i.e., characteristics of learners of English in general) but rather transfer errors. However, it is what this wide range of documented errors have in common--i.e., within the gross typological descriptive framework discussed earlier--that interests us here.

The range in question comprises the following groups, with labeling and sample citations carried over from the original:

1. Wrong omission of subject
    a. Daddy has a lot of work. Mother expects ‸ to stay at his office late.
    b. I couldn't sleep until you got back. It worries me ‸ to stay out so late.
2. Non-finiteness of subordinate clauses
    a. He will give us money before ‸ leaves.
    b. John sleeps a lot after ‸ eats a lot.
3. Subject pronoun missing
    a. My father been so fortunate. ‸ Hold a big post in the government.
    b. Abdul not enjoyed the party. ‸ Went home early.
4. Object pronoun missing
    a. Donald is mean so no one likes ‸ .
    b. Do you like this dress? I made ‸ myself.
5. Surrogate subject missing: *there* and *it*
    a. ‸ Was a riot last night.
    b. ‸ Is raining.
6. Verb before subject
    a. Walked the priest very far.
    b. Was falling a lot of rain.
7. Subject and object permuted/Passive order but active form
    a. English use many countries.
    b. Much money will get a politician.
8. Under use [of *do*] in questions
    a. Paints the boy?
    b. Go you to school?
9. Missing passives in complex sentences
    a. We were recommended by her to spend less money.
    b. Mark was hoped to become a football player.

10. Snatched subject as subject of main clause

    a. He is unusual to have a new auto.
    b. The door is strange to be unlocked.

11. Snatched subject as object of main clause

    a. A girl was decided to play the piano.
    b. We were demanded to return the hymnbook.

12. Misordering with reverse adjectives

    a. You are important to come on time.
    b. I am wonderful to see you.

13. Misordering in embedded sentences

    a. He admits me hard to learn quickly.
    b. He thinks you important to hurry up.

Whatever else numbers 1-5 may represent, they certainly reveal defective obligatory SVO occurrence. (In fact the first three categories, different labeling notwithstanding, seem to show the same phenomenon.) It would appear that the obligatory S or O that is omitted in these examples is just that S or O which can be interpreted as topic, the learner presumably taking coreference with topic as governing deletion, as is typically the case in topic-prominent languages. In category 5, of course, empty subject position requires a dummy element for the preservation of S-V order.

The violation in categories 6-8 involves not defective SVO occurrence, obviously, but SVO misordering. That is, although the learner may well have already grasped the basic principle of SVO ordering, he perhaps hasn't yet learned that modifications in that ordering are governed by syntactic principles and not, as in many other languages, by pragmatic ones.

In categories 9-13 movement rules have been invoked and SVO order is preserved, but subject-to-subject raising has applied to verbs and adjectives that are not strictly subcategorized for this rule feature (Chomsky, 1965).

Although we do not know which if any of the above error categories were produced by learners with particular native language backgrounds (that information not being cited by Burt and Kiparsky), it would be strange if the categories did not align themselves in this way at least to some extent. For example, one might quite reasonably suppose, consistent with what is known of language universals and language typology, (1) that learners in general would devise special strategies in order effectively to process a language (viz English) in which there is often a not very tight fit between semantic content and the linear order of syntactic constituents, and (2) that those strategies would in turn be influenced by individual native-language typological characteristics. Substantiation of the first of these hypotheses might be borne out by a high incidence of error in precisely those areas of English that reveal syntactic "distance" from semantic content, as in the above enumerated categories, for example. Substantiation of the second hypothesis might be borne out by the fact that different *kinds* of errors are made within these same areas. A useful clue to look for--a clue, that is, to the possibility that these sorts of strategies are being brought to bear in learner production--

would be errors that are in the syntactic-semantic "ill-fitting" areas of English and that are unique to learners with the same native language.

In fact, just such a clue turned up in the written production of Japanese learners of English that was analyzed in Schachter and Rutherford (1979). It was noted that Japanese speakers, alone among the learner population under scrutiny, were producing errors in which there occurred grammatically disallowed predications of certain nouns and adjectives to sentential subjects (both *that* clauses and infinitivals), whose subjects were extraposed sentence-finally. For example,

(5) (a) It is a tendency that such a friendly restaurants become less in big city.

(b) It is more likeable to be in a large university so that I could choose one out of many courses.

We suspected at the time that these and many other similar examples were evidence of negative transfer from Japanese, because no other language group was producing them. Yet it clearly could not have been "transfer" in the usual sense of that term, for nothing in Japanese surface structure corresponded to the interlingual forms being produced. For example, Japanese, a rigidly verb-final SOV language, has no need for dummy place-holders for subject position, like English *it* or *there*. After close examination of this production, the most plausible explanation we could suggest was that the transfer in question was not L1 syntax to L2 syntax but rather L1 *discourse* to L2 syntax. That is, we hypothesized that the English extraposition examples produced by Japanese learners were all being used to make "generic statements." Nevertheless, this hypothesis still remains to be tested.

Meanwhile, other possible explanations come to mind. It might be claimed, for example, that what this kind of error represents is the result of the interaction in a learning situation of two different language typologies, Japanese SOV and English SVO, together with accompanying important characteristics such as invariant verb-finality for Japanese. In pursuit of such a claim, it is possible to demonstrate that the order of constituents in (5), excluding dummy *it*, is the "mirror image" of what it is in Japanese (Smith, 1978), and that it would be worth investigating whether these sentences of the form *it is* - {Adj/N} = [sentoid], *over*produced by Japanese learners, are at least partially the product of a strategy devised to enable the learner to conceptualize from an L1 typology (viz left-branching SOV) to a very different L2 typology (viz right-branching SVO). If something like this does take place, then the above strategy could be regarded simply as another example of what the learner does when confronted with an "ill-fit" between (the learner's conceptualized) semantic content and (the target language's) syntactic realization of it.

The implications of these language learning strategies for the language teaching syllabus are very important. Future research will need to investigate to what extent it is possible, through formal instruction, to facilitate implementation of the strategies that are needed by all language users for the perception of the loose relationship in English between symantic content and its syntactic realization. If the native English speaker has subconsciously to "work hard" at doing this, as Hawkins suggests, then how much harder the task of the language learner, whose notion of such a relationship has already been shaped in a different way by the typological organization of his own mother tongue. It is recognition of this particular kind of language learning difficulty, and of the desirability of exploring ways in which the syllabus might alleviate it, that could well be taken up in ongoing research into pedagogical grammar and its place in the language teaching syllabus.

2.2 The past history of the language teaching profession might lead one to want to turn any findings from the above suggested research into a new kind of language-teaching "unit," one which served to focus classroom attention upon these newly emergent language organizational principles. Needless to say, I don't think that that is what is called for. As we saw earlier, language information such as this is not amenable to an item-unit approach in pedagogy, nor would even the "visibility" of this information necessarily be beneficial.

The suggestion has been made several times now throughout this paper that thoughts about the function of grammar in a language teaching syllabus might well flow in channels other than those to which we have for so long been accustomed. Such channels would lead away from a conception of grammar as an accumulation of autonomous discrete entities (i.e., constructions and rules) and lead instead toward a conception of grammar as a means for processing language at the level of discourse (Givón, 1979). The real function of grammar thus becomes understandable only as it relates to discourse. Hurtig (1977) put it this way: "Our general hypothesis concerning the relationship of sentence grammar, discourse grammar and the psychological processes operative in the encoding of sentences and discourses is that the sentence (clause) is the on-line perceptual unit while the discourse (*idea set/logical event space*) is the unit of cognitive (semantic) memory. Put in other terms, the discourse is the cognitive organizational unit while the sentence (syntactic structure) is the production unit" (pp. 103-4).

Once again, however, the functions of pedagogical grammar which we have been discussing do not imply that classroom attention is to be drawn to them, nor *should* one draw that implication. What is called attention to in pedagogy should at least have the possibility that it can be remembered, although not necessarily in the same way for each learner (Seliger, 1979). And it has been shown that the use of memory in language learning is not demonstrated through the acquisition of syntax. To quote Hurtig (1977) again, "Encoding of discourse into memory operates in terms of the topical or propositional nature of the discourse rather than the surface linguistic form of the constituent sentences" (p. 96). Even less then will that encoding into memory operate in terms of the opaque yet crucial language organizational principles that we have been discussing. Paradoxically perhaps, they are too important to be turned into language lessons.

3. It is time to look back at what we have been saying. Past considerations of pedagogical grammar are largely deficient in one major respect: they stem from a concept of language organization that is quite naively at variance with the much richer concepts suggested by contemporary theoretical research. This impoverished pedagogical view has had two direct consequences for the design of language teaching syllabuses: (1) the role of grammar is seen invariably as

one in which the grammatical content should be made the object of classroom attention, and (2) grammatical attention is limited to that part of language organization that has definable boundaries--limited, in other words, to language *constituents*.

Absent for the most part from the thinking that goes into how attention to language form can most effectively serve the needs of language learning is the realization that there are language properties crucial to its use for communication that are not readily observable and that consequently do not lend themselves to exploitation within the language-teaching paradigm that we have become accustomed to. These properties include above all the extensive typological information that specifies a language's gross canonical form and the relationship between that form and the principles of discourse that the form is designed to serve. If efforts to let such properties influence language syllabus planning ultimately contribute to a reshaping of the syllabus itself, then this is as it should be. For limitations inherent in our long familiar language-instructional models must not be allowed to prevent the richest possible grammatical contribution to the language-teaching syllabus.

REFERENCES

Adler, I., 1959, *The New Mathematics*. New York: John Day Co.

Blatchford, C., and J. Schachter, 1978, *On TESOL '78*. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Bolinger, D., 1977, *Meaning and Form*. London: Longman.

Brandwein, P.F., R. Stollberg, and R.W. Burnette, 1968, *Matter: Its Forms and Changes*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Brown, H.D., 1980, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Burt, M., and C. Kiparsky, 1972, *The Gooficon: A Repair Manual for English*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.

Canale, M., and M. Swain, 1980, "Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing," *Applied Linguistics* 1/1.

Chafe, W., 1976, "Givenness, Contrastiveness, Definiteness, Subjects, Topics, and Point of View," in Li, C. N., ed., 1976, *Subject and Topic*. New York: Academic Press.

Chomsky, N., 1965, *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Clark, H., 1973, "Space, Time, Semantics, and the Child," in Moore, T., ed., *Cognitive Development and the Acquisition of Language*. New York: Academic Press.

Clark, H., and S.E. Haviland, 1977, "Comprehension and the Given-New Contract," in Freedle, R.O., ed., 1977, *Discourse Production and Comprehension*. Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Emonds, J.E., 1976, *A transformational Approach to English Syntax: Root, Structure-Preserving, and Local Transformations.* New York: Academic Press.

Fillmore, C., 1968, "The Case for Case," in Bach, R., and R. Harms, eds., *Universals in Linguistic Theory.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Freedle, R.O., ed., 1977, *Discourse Production and Comprehension.* Norwood New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Gibson, R.E., 1975, "The Strip Story: A Catalyst for Communication," *TESOL Quarterly* 9/2.

Givón, T., 1979, *On Understanding Grammar.* New York: Academic Press.

Gleason, H.A., 1965, *Linguistics and English Grammar.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Hakuta, K., 1979, "Some Common Goals for First and Second Language Acquisition Research," Paper delivered at TESOL Convention, Boston.

Halliday, M.A.K., and R. Hasan, 1976, *Cohesion in English.* London: Longman.

Hatch, E., 1978, "Discourse Analysis and Second Language Acquisition," in Hatch, E., ed., 1978, *Second Language Acquisition.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.

Hawkins, J., 1980, "On the Theoretical Significance of English/German Syntactic Contrasts," Paper delivered at the International Seminar on Contrastive English/German Grammar, Stanford University.

Huebner, T.G., 1979, "Order-of-acquisition vs. Dynamic Paradigm: A Comparison of Method in Interlanguage Research," *TESOL Quarterly* 13/1.

Hurtig, R., 1977, "Toward a Functional Theory of Discourse," in Freedle, R.O., ed., 1977, *Discourse Production and Comprehension.* Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Kuhn, T.S., 1970, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lester, M., ed., 1970, *Readings in Applied Transformational Grammar.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Li, C.N., ed., 1976, *Subject and Topic.* New York: Academic Press.

Li, C.N., and S.A. Thompson, 1976, "Subject and Topic: A New Typology of Language," in Li, C.N., ed., 1976, *Subject and Topic.* New York: Academic Press.

Munby, J., 1978, *Communicative Syllabus Design.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Newmark, L., 1970, "How Not to Interfere in Language Learning," in Lester, M., ed., 1970, *Readings in Applied Transformational Grammar*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Newmark, L., and D. Reibel, 1970, "Necessity and Sufficiency in Language Learning," in Lester, M., ed., 1970, *Readings in Applied Transformational Grammar*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Quirk, R., S. Greenbaum, G. Leech, and J. Svartvik, eds., 1972, *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. London: Longman.

Rutherford, W.E., 1976, "Second Language Teaching," in Brown H., and R. Wardhaugh, eds., 1976, *A Survey of Applied Linguistics*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press.

Rutherford, W.E., 1977, *Modern English*, Second Edition, Volume 2. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Rutherford, W.E., 1978, "Notional Syllabuses, Part 3," in Blatchford, C., and J. Schachter, eds., 1978, *On TESOL '78*. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Rutherford, W.E., 1980, "Aspects of Pedagogical Grammar," *Applied Linguistics* 1/1.

Samuelson, W., 1976, *English as a Second Language, Phase Three: Let's Write*. Reston, Virginia: Reston Publishing Company.

Schachter, J., and W.E. Rutherford, 1979, "Discourse Function and Language Transfer," *Working Papers in Bilingualism* 19.

Schmidt, M., 1978, Coordinate Structures and Deletion in Learner English. Master's Thesis, University of Washington.

Seliger, H., 1979, "On the Nature and Function of Language Rules in Language Teaching," *TESOL Quarterly* 13/3.

Seliger, H., 1980, Strategy and Tactic in Second Language Acquisition. Unpublished paper.

Selinker, L., 1972, "Interlanguage," *International Review of Applied Linguistics* 10/2.

Sharwood-Smith, M., 1978, *Aspects of Future Reference in a Pedagogical Grammar of English*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Smith, D.L., 1978, "Mirror Images in Japanese and English," *Language* 54/1.

Thompson, S.A., 1978, "Modern English from a Typological Point of View: Some Implications of the Function of Word Order," *Linguistische Berichte* 54.

Widdowson, H.G., 1978, "Notional Syllabuses, Part 4," in Blatchford, C., and J. Schachter, eds., 1978, *On TESOL '78*. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

NOTES

[1] I wish to thank Peter Jordens for a number of helpful comments during the preparation of this paper.

COMMUNICATIVE AND GRAMMATICAL SYLLABUSES TO TEACH CONVERSATIONAL SKILLS

RICHARD MEAD
University of Birmingham, UK
and
University of Malaya

Studies in Language Learning (1982), 4, 33-45.

This paper discusses the case for applying communicative and grammatical descriptions of data in syllabuses designed to teach conversational English for Specific Purposes (ESP).[1] Suggestions have been made by writers for the organization of the communicative syllabus. One is quoted below, and is examined from the point of view of the relationship implied between content and its linguistic expression. My argument is supported by fragments of conversational data, taken from a corpus of undergraduate small-group mechanical engineering data collected in UK universities (discussed further in Mead (1980)). The problems of applying communicative and/or grammatical analyses to a conversational syllabus are thrown into relief by consideration of the problems involved in applying analyses of written text to a reading syllabus. The paper is concluded by suggesting how an appropriate balance may be made between communicative and grammatical criteria.

All language syllabuses are communicative in the conventional sense that they are intended to teach the ability to communicate. But the term is used here with the technical meaning generally agreed upon by Wilkins (1976), Widdowson (1978), Breen and Candlin (forthcoming), and others. These writers have tended to restrict their discussion of the communicative syllabus to the ESP syllabus. By the term *ESP syllabus* I mean the following. When language is taught in conjunction with a content course, the ESP syllabus is subordinate to some description of overall educational objectives, by which the relationships of the ESP syllabus and the content syllabus/syllabuses are organized. The syllabuses differentiate and order the processes by which the curriculum objectives can be achieved. The ESP syllabus specifies the content, form, and sequence of the language teaching materials, and must also influence the choice of language teaching methodology. This paper, however, is concerned only with establishing the theoretical basis of the ESP syllabus. Wilkins (1976) makes a case for a communicative (or notional) syllabus, which makes the relationship between language and content the central issue.

> "...in drawing up a notional syllabus, instead of asking how speakers of the language express themselves or when and where they use the language, we ask what it is they communicate through language. We are then able to organise language teaching in terms of the content rather than the form of the language....The advantage of the notional syllabus is that it takes the communicative facts of language into account from the beginning without losing sight of grammatical and situational factors. It is potentially superior to the grammatical syllabus because it will produce a communicative competence and because its evident concern with the use of language will sustain the motivation of the learners....The process of deciding what to teach is based on consideration of what the learners should most usefully be able to communicate in the foreign language. When this is established, we can decide what are the most appropriate forms for each type of communication. The labelling for the learning units is now primarily semantic..." (pp. 18-19).

Wilkins argues that the syllabus can be designed "in terms of the content rather than the form of the language." This is a position also held by other writers, and which I am going to attack. It suggests that the content is described in terms of conceptual generalizations, and that the syllabus comprises their linguistic expressions. But so far as conversation is concerned, the relationship between language and the content to which it refers is often indirect. This point is illustrated by fragment (a).

(a) Tutor: ...is it clear why . why that's wrong?
Student: yeah
Tutor: I (mean we've got two things that are equal
Student: (yeah yeah
Tutor: . and that voltage is equal to either of them
Student: yeah
Tutor: and you can get the information as to the current that flows down there from the voltage (along and
Student: (mm
Tutor: the current that flows down there from the voltage alone...

The participants are discussing the solution to a test paper problem. But their conversation gives a very incomplete model of the content under discussion, and of the cognitive operations involved in doing the problem. The constraints imposed by the content are not made explicit. They belong to the participants' shared knowledge, and are not expressed in the realization scheme, and therefore cannot be appealed to for an interpretation of what is said. Furthermore, the language includes features that are necessary to the maintenance of the conversation but redundant in terms of the content; for instance, the check question and answer in the first two lines ("is it clear why . why that's wrong?"/"yeah"), and the student's acknowledgement markers ("yeah,' "yeah," "yeah," "mm").

In all conversations (whether desultary or academic), the structural relationships between opening and answering moves are of greater significance in its organization than the expression of content. A question makes the structural prediction of an answer, and unless entirely inappropriate, whatever follows it will be heard as an answer. In the following (invented) example, Speaker B's utterance is not connected by semantic links.

Speaker A: Can you tell me where the meeting is?
Speaker B: The receptionist will be back in a moment.

But despite the lack of semantic connection, the exchange is well-formed (given an appropriate context) in the sense that Speaker B provides an appropriate answer. Speaker B's utterance can be paraphrased as "I can't tell you where the meeting is because I don't know/won't tell you because it isn't my job, but the receptionist can/will, and she will be back to help you in a moment." In fact, an utterance that makes content explicit may even be inappropriate; for instance, "yes, I can tell you where the meeting is," without the offer of further information, would sound very strange.

The importance of analyzing and teaching conversation in terms of structural form rather than communicative categories is exemplified by a similar fragment from the data. I am particularly interested in the last two lines.

(b) Tutor: ...you haven't been for about . what? . four or five weeks? (1) you're only here tonight because I . sent a rude message (1) aren't you? (2) what's the problem?

Student: (1) oh . nothing

Tutor: well I mean presumably you don't think you get anything at all (1) out of our (1) meetings

Student: (1) hm

Tutor: is that right?

Student: no

Tutor: . well there must be a reason

Student: well I feel a bit tired

The tutor's utterance "well there must be a reason" has the effect of asking a question that might be paraphrased as "what is the reason (that you don't come to our meetings)?". This *wh*- question demands a proposition in the answer, which the student supplies: "well I feel a bit tired." If the student had answered with 0, or an acknowledgment--reciprocal to a declarative form that only provides information--he would have answered inappropriately.

Communicative categories that might be applied to these two utterances include "asking for an excuse" + "giving an excuse"; "making an inquiry" + "making an exposition"; or, grossly, "asking a question" + "giving an answer." Although these are my categories rather than Wilkins', I suggest there is no formal basis on which communicative categories can be distinguished and labelled, and any one of these pairs is adequate.

But the communicative functions of the utterances are only apparent within the extended context. And teaching the language learner any of the suggested categories does not tell him when the first in each pair may be realized by a declarative form, or when a declarative form expects 0 acknowledgment, or a *yes/no* response, or a proposition, or activity. And although an utterance such as "What is your excuse (for not coming to our meeting?)" is, of course, possible, I suggest that demands for an excuse are in practice seldom so explicit.

These utterances might instead be explained by the following table; any of the grammatical forms on the left can elicit the form on the right. (This description is adapted from Sinclair (1980), in which the grammatical features of structural relationships between opening and answering moves are discussed in detail.)

		OPENING:	ANSWERING:
(a)	SP eg:	(subject followed by predicate) There must be a reason why you don't come to our meeting.	SP (subject followed by predicate) eg: I feel a bit tired
(b)	P[S] eg:	(subject inside predicate) Is there a reason why you don't come to our meetings?	
(c)	*wh*- P[S] eg:	(subject inside predicate, preceded by interrogative *wh*-?) What is the reason that you don't come/Why don't you come to our meetings?	

I argue that the grammatical options chosen by speakers carry communicative implications, and that communicative skills are taught when grammatical forms are taught within appropriate co-texts and contexts. For this reason the tutor's choice of the unmarked form (a) in preference to the marked interrogatives (b) ("Is there a reason...?") and (c) ("What is the reason...?") is significant to the syllabus writer. I suggest that (c), and perhaps also (b), are more likely to occur as initial in the topic, whereas (a) *may* presuppose earlier discussion. This is borne out here. In line 3 ("what's the problem") the tutor asks for a reason for the student's non-attendance; the student does not give a reason; in lines 5-6 the tutor offers a possible reason; in line 9 the student rejects the offer. And so the tutor's choice of the unmarked form realizes not only a request but also a summarizing function.

The relationships between the opening and answering moves discussed above can be graded in the syllabus in terms of the degree to which the formal relationship between them is explicit.

syllabus item 1:	(c) *wh*- P/S/	SP (Opening interrogative move marked as *wh*-?)
syllabus item 2:	(b) P/S/	SP (Opening interrogative move is not marked as *wh*-?)
syllabus item 3:	(a) SP	SP (Opening move is not marked as interrogative)

Fragment (b) (perhaps slightly edited) supplies an appropriate co-text within which the communicative value of syllabus item 3 can be taught.

I have indicated that the communicative syllabus presupposes a description of real data because communicative categories cannot be safely intuited. In the example given above description can be applied directly to the syllabus design; however, this is not always the case. In general the data shows the tutor playing the more active role. The student is reluctant to suggest topics, and may be unable to answer questions appropriately; examples are given in fragments (c) and (d).

(c) Tutor: ...one plus J something . and there may be a number there as well (4) all right?

Student 1: yuh

Tutor: (3) any more problems?

Student 3: (3) not really no

Tutor: how's the laboratory work going?

Student 1: not too bad sir

In fragment (c), the student does not exploit his opportunities to suggest a conversational topic; the tutor makes the choice himself.

(d) Tutor: at what age would you expect a child to be ninety? (5) at what age . it would be that high wouldn't it?

Student: yah

Tutor: at about what age?

Student: say . ten

Tutor: no . impossible . a ten year old would be much bigger than that . that's ninety . it would be about a six year old (4) now how heavy would they be? . half your weight or less? (1) how fat would they be?...

In fragment (d), the student is unable to answer questions correctly, and fails to say what he cannot answer.

If it is desirable that the student should play a committed role in conversation and that when unable to answer a question should explain his difficulty rather than keep quiet, then these fragments show behavior that falls far short of the ideal. Hence, they do not provide a model that can be directly applied to the design of a syllabus teaching conversational skills. This underlines the point that the relationship between descriptive and prescriptive models is determined pragmatically, and is variable.

To sum up thus far: I have argued that the relationship that conversational language has to the content it expresses may be indirect and that description of the content does not necessarily explain the speaker's choice of language forms. Hence a description of content cannot usually be applied to teaching the appropriate forms. Instead, conversation should be taught in terms of its typical structure within a particular variety (in this case, small-group engineering), and of the ranges of grammatical forms from which the structure is organized. I now wish to examine the methodological implications of applying a system of communicative conversational categories.

The analyst employs communicative conversational categories as a means of summarizing the effects of utterances which he intuitively recognizes as realizing similar functions. But the learner does not have access to or understanding of the utterances from which the communicative categories are inferred. He can only recognize the communicative common denominator in a range of utterances when he understands the meaning and effects of the individual utterances. So the use of communicative categories may unreasonably presuppose the pedagogic outcome of teaching recognition and production of the utterances.

The communicative syllabus writer is obliged to construct and in some way interrelate a finite set of communicative categories. He must show precisely what he means by a particular category and demonstrate the conditions under which an utterance should be considered an exponent of that category.

But even if he succeeds in organizing a set of categories, the precise meanings of the various categories will be unstable in different situational contexts and linguistic co-texts. Communicative categories, unlike grammatical categories, are context and co-text dependent for their functional meaning. The problem is exacerbated to the extent that the learner lacks experience of the type of context and co-text. The use of communicative categories assumes recognition of cultural and sociolinguistic values which may not be shared by learners from different backgrounds. Some instruction in the technical terminology of linguistic description may be unavoidable, but this should never become a major responsibility for the teacher.

I wish to demonstrate this point by considering the difficulties introduced by a communicative syllabus that distinguishes between *requesting* (something), and *asking about* (something); (my categories). These categories are clearly different when exemplified by the following utterances, and should be distinguished in the syllabus.

requesting:	Please close the door Could you tell me where the meeting is?
asking about:	Have you been to Blackpool? Is this made of copper or zinc?

But the *Concise Oxford Dictionary* (Sixth Edition, 1976) defines "request" as "act of asking for something." This suggests at a deeper level of description, any *asking about* utterance (and perhaps any question) can be redefined as *requesting* information, and therefore as an exponent of a subcategory of the *requesting* category. Unless the learner is first given the conceptual apparatus needed to differentiate these categories, I suggest that he first be taught grammatical realizations. For instance:

ask (noun phrase) to (verb phrase) - *requesting*

{ask if/whether (noun prase, verb phrase)
ask what/when/why/where/who/how ((noun phrase) verb phrase)} - *asking about*

Before going on to consider written text, I want to take up two further points from Wilkins' argument. He claims that the communicative syllabus "is potentially superior to the grammatical syllabus because it will produce a communicative competence." But the application of linguistic analysis to language teaching is pragmatic and the intention to teach communication does not guarantee the result; the use of a communicative syllabus does not guarantee communicative teaching. Whether communicative or grammatical categories are applied may make little difference if the exponents are treated overdiscretely.

Wilkins also suggests that the communicative syllabus is superior because "its evident concern with the use of language will sustain the motivation of the learners." But if the learner fails to recognize the general significance of the communicative categories, and their relationship to the production and recognition of actual utterances, their use may be counter-productive. In countries in which language education is grammatically based (for instance, in the Middle East), the learner has been conditioned to think of language learning as a matter of deploying the exponents of grammatical categories. If the switch to a communicative syllabus is managed incautiously, his expectations (whether good or bad) are frustrated. He may fail to recognize the nature of the activity, and complain that his time is being wasted with games.

The case against the communicative syllabus is made forcibly by Brumfit (1980). "Grammatical features are parts of a system, and it is the system which is being learnt, though often not explicitly or overtly. We have no comparable understanding of the system of communicative functions. It is only by presenting a heavily stereotyped situation that I can show whether a specific utterance is warning rather than threatening, and even native speakers may disagree--as they often do in a court of law--over what exactly has taken place....Yet communicative function--at the specific level which the learner requires--demands a consideration of all probable motives for speaking. We are asking either that the whole of normal human relationships should be systematized and related to language, or that we should base our syllabuses on a mere list of subjectively chosen, unrelatable items. Neither of these seems to be a very sensible proposal. On the other hand, to base a syllabus on a geniune system, like the grammatical system, and to use a list of functions simply as a checklist, to be integrated methodologically into the practical working out of a syllabus in teaching, would seem to be a very sensible approach to take" (pp. 117-118).

Yet Brumfit overstates the case. Firstly, no syllabus, whether grammatical or communicative, can take into account all possibly contexts or co-texts; stereotyping is inevitable. Secondly, a checklist of communicative functions would presumably need to be organized by the same procedures that are operated when the communicative syllabus is prime. Thirdly, Brumfit's objections are less sound when applied to the teaching of reading skills.

The qualifications that must be made when the ESP is text based help to highlight my comments about the application of conversational analysis. The varieties of conversation and written text are significantly different, even when expressing the same content. Conversation is non-linear in the sense that it is multiple source and there is interactive participation by more than one person, although of course participation continues along a linear time base. Written text is non-linear in that the reader may refer backwards and forwards, make omissions, and interrupt his reading at will. Roe (1977) shows how the writer can exploit these features of performances. For instance, the text need not maintain constant "density"; certain sections may be skipped. Some parts, such as appendices and indexes, are optional and recursive. Equations and diagrams take the place of grammatical utterances. The text may be organized in terms of information needed to solve given sets of problems and quizzes.

I have suggested that structural relationships rather than the conceptual organization of content is decisive in conversation. But this is not the case in written text. The writer does not enjoy the freedom to make incomplete and ungrammatical sentences, and references to a (presumed) situational context must usually be made explicit.

The speaker may name his topic, but this is only very weakly predictive of semantic organization of the conversation that follows. This point is exemplified by fragment (e); this makes a continuation of fragment (c). The tutor suggests a topic, laboratory work, in the first line.

(e) Tutor: how's the laboratory work going?
Student 1: not too bad sir
Tutor: who do you work with in the laboratory?
Student 1: er I work with erm . an Indian boy
Tutor: an Indian boy, hm hm?
Student 2: I work with er David . Wong
Tutor: (2) I don't know him . what
Student 2: no . erm
Tutor: erm what nationality is he?
Student 2: Jap . Japanese or Chinese
Tutor: Chinese hm
Student 2: I don't know
Tutor: what from Singapore or Malaya or
Student 2: no he's English . with
er Chinese origin
Tutor: English with a Chinese origin . hm
Student 2: he's one of those (who
Tutor: (what's his English language like?
Student 2: speaks with a Birmi Birmingham accent
Tutor: a Birmingham accent ((laughs)) (no really?
Student 2: (it isn't quite that (1) that bad . but
he has got er . an English area . er
regional accent I don't know where about it .
where abouts his family's from
Tutor: (1) well now have you got any more problems
you'd like to discuss today?
Student 1: er no not really...

As the discussion continues, each utterance is coherent in terms of its immediate co-text. But the conversation drifts further and further away from the topic of laboratory work. (Topic "drift" is discussed in Coulthard, 1977). The conversation is "about" different things at different points; the identity of co-workers in the laboratory, the nationality of David Wong, his language competence.

However, the same license is not available to the writer of text, and predictions of content are likely to be fulfilled. If he titles his book "Introductory Economics" and promises ten chapters, the reader has some guarantee that he is not embarking upon a discussion of marine biology in twelve chapters. And if a paragraph begins "This system of valuation has two drawbacks," it may be predicted that a system of valuation is mentioned in the preceding co-text, and that two drawbacks to it will be discussed in the succeeding co-text. Semantic relationships between units at and above the level of the sentence are discussed in Hoey (forthcoming).

So written text is primarily organized by the semantic expression made of its content, and hence is perhaps more accessible to analysis made in terms of communicative functions. Nevertheless, it seems likely that the learner has least difficulty recognizing communicative categories of which the exponents are distinguished by particular grammatical forms or lexical markers. For instance, undergraduate Economics is characterized by the use of predictive conditionals:

> "A choice means that you have one thing or the other. If you choose to have more of one thing, then where there is more of one thing, then, where there is an effective choice, it will be necessary for you to have less of the other. Think of the members of an individual household with a certain amount of resources answering the question: 'How shall we use our resources?' If we have more of this then we must have less of that. If by cost we mean what must be given up in order to obtain something then the cost of bread is having less of something else" (Lipsey, 1963, p. 51).

I suggest that the predictive conditional should first be taught in terms of its grammatical realizations, which might be graded as follows:

syllabus item 1:	*If* + noun phrase + verb phrase (verb present), *then* + noun phrase + verb phrase (verb present) e.g.: If price increases, then demand decreases.
syllabus item 2:	*If* + noun phrase + verb phrase (verb present), *then* + noun phrase + verb phrase (verb future) e.g.: If price increases, then demand will decrease.
syllabus item 3:	...

In these instances, the knit between grammatical expression and content is perhaps as close as it can be. But other adverbs such as "supposing that," "when," and verbs "depend on" and "assume" are less explicit in their conditional implications. In different co-texts, their conditional meanings will vary; "when," for instance, is more often temporal. The conditional use of these forms should be described and taught within co-texts where the marked conditional "if" can be substituted. For instance, note the use of "depends on" in the following text:

> "Producers require land, labour, raw materials, machines, and other factors of production because these are needed to produce the goods and services that the firm sells. So the demand for any factor of production *depends on* the existence of a demand for goods that it helps to make. We say that the demand is a DERIVED DEMAND" (Ibid., p. 330).

In different co-texts the meanings of "depends on" may vary between condition, causality, etc. Here it expresses a condition and this use might be taught towards from a version of the text edited as follows:

> ...these are needed to produce goods and services that the firm sells. So if there is a demand for the goods that a factor of production helps to make, then there is a demand for the factor of production. We say that the demand for this factor is a DERIVED DEMAND.

"Depends on" is not in free distribution with "if"; but the evidence suggests that a comprehensive syllabus covering the expression of predictive conditionals should include it:

syllabus item n: noun phrase - *depends on* - noun phrase
e.g.: The demand for a factor of production depends on the existence of a demand for the goods that it helps to make.

When the student has internalized the linguistic expression of the conditionals, he is able to understand the constraint imposed on the use of the predictive conditional by the conceptual nature of economic theory (and perhaps all social science theory). This is the principle of *ceteris paribus*--when all other relevant factors are held constant. For instance, the relationship suggested in the first two examples of syllabus items above between increasing price and decreasing demand is assumed to be true when factors such as increased advertising, changes in taste, the absence of substitute goods, etc., are ignored. Communicative categories of which the exponents are not distinguished by particular grammatical forms or lexical markers are likely to give greater difficulties in recognition and production. For instance, recognition of distinctions between exponents of *evaluation*, *suasion*, *argument* (Wilkins' categories) tend to be intuitive. Consider the following fragments:

> "Hypotheses like these are very hard to test. Proponents of organisation theory feel that the evidence supports them: critics feel that they are undemonstrated. It is hard to avoid the view that at the present time the evidence is inconclusive" (Ibid., p. 316).

The last sentence might be argued to express any of the three categories.

CONCLUSIONS

I have discussed the cases for the application of communicative and grammatical syllabuses. Wilkins' case for the communicative syllabus can be faulted at several points; the counter argument made by Brumfit is overstated. I wish to conclude by suggesting where emphases on each of these two syllabuses might be most usefully made.

Perhaps in its early stages any ESP syllabus designed for use by students of intermediate or elementary grammatical ability should be grammar based. Experience of language instruction at schools has provided most ESP learners with a common frame of grammatical reference, which is relatively context free and may be exploited. But, as I have shown, the grammatical meaning of an item affects and is affected by the meaning of its co-text; the choice of grammatical option made by the speaker/writer carries communicative implications. And grammatical items should be taught within appropriate co-texts.

As the course of ESP instruction continues, the relationship between the learner, the teacher, and the materials changes, and the original constraints on the application of communicative categories may be modified. The learner plays an increasing role in identifying his communicative needs and expectations, and the teacher adapts his selection of materials and methodology in the light of the learner's developing abilities and motivation. Perhaps each new language topic in the ESP syllabus is introduced in terms of its grammatical exponents, but when this introduction has been made, the emphasis becomes increasingly communicative and communicative categories can be used.

As the personal relationship between teacher and learner develops, reference to shared communicative values becomes easier, and this may be reflected in the syllabus. When the teacher and learner are sufficiently confident of their relationship, I would agree with Breen and Candlin (forthcoming) that a communicative methodology can:

> "exploit the classroom as a resource with its own communicative potential. The classroom is only one resource in language teaching, but it is also the meeting-place of all other resources--learners, teachers, and texts. Each of these has sufficiently heterogeneous characteristics to make classroom-based negotiation a necessary undertaking....The authenticity of the classroom lies in its dual role of observatory and laboratory during a communicative learning-teaching process" (p. 7).

But, as I suggested above, there is no one-to-one relationship between a communicative syllabus and communicative teaching, and communicative (in the sense of effective) teaching very often occurs even when the syllabus emphasizes grammatical systems.

The movement from a grammatical to a communicative emphasis may be perceived in terms of a cline. The balance at any one moment will be determined by a number of factors. I have not discussed the significance of different teaching styles, the conceptual organization of the related content syllabus/syllabuses, the learner's attitudes to English culture and the degree of his instrumental and integrative motivation. These issues do not belong in this paper, but are relevant. What I have done is to distinguish between the organization of conversation and written text. The differences suggest that communicative categories might be introduced in a syllabus designed to teach reading ESP at an earlier stage than in a syllabus designed to teach conversational ESP. I conclude that the communicative or grammatical emphasis of a syllabus should reflect the linguistic characteristics of the skill that it teaches. That is, a language syllabus should be based on analysis of the target variety of language. It might seem that I am proposing a third type of syllabus, the discourse syllabus. But in the present climate, normative models of ideal syllabus types tend to be interpreted dogmatically. My position throughout has been that we should pay more attention to the constraints imposed by the linguistic organization of the target variety, and by the pedagogic context within which the syllabus is applied.

REFERENCES

Breen, M., and C.N. Candlin, forthcoming, "The Essentials of a Communicative Curriculum in Language Teaching," *Applied Linguistics* 1(2).

Brumfit, C., 1980, *Problems and Principles in English Teaching.* London: Pergamon Press.

Coulthard, M., 1977, *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis.* London: Longman.

Hoey, M., forthcoming, *On the Surface of Discourse.* London: George Allen and Unwin.

Lipsey, R.G., 1963 (third edition, 1974), *An Introduction to Positive Economics.* London: Weidenfeld and Nicholson.

Mead, R., 1980, *An Analysis of Small-Group Discourse and its Application.* Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation: University of Birmingham, U.K.

Roe, P.J., 1977, *The Notion of Difficulty in Scientific Text.* Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation: University of Birmingham, U.K.

Sinclair, J.McH., forthcoming, "Discourse in Relation to Language Structure and Semiotics," in Greenbaum, S., G. Leech, and J. Svartvik, eds., *Studies in English Linguistics for Randolph Quirk.* London: Longman.

Widdowson, H.G., 1978, *Teaching English as Communication.* London: Oxford University Press.

Wilkins, D.A., 1976, *Notional Syllabus.* London: Oxford University Press.

NOTES

[1] I owe many thanks to Malcolm Coulthard, Michael Howey, and Chris Kennedy, whose helpful suggestions on an earlier draft I have attempted to incorporate here.

THE IMPLICATIONS FOR TESTING OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

BRENDAN J. CARROLL
The Pergamon Press
Oxford, England

Studies in Language Learning (1982), 4, 46-55.

0. INTRODUCTION

The current emphasis on the communicative aspects of language has made a considerable impact on language teaching methods and materials, but so far the search for applications of communicative principles to language testing has proved much less rewarding. In this paper, I wish to describe such progress as I and my associates have made in this direction in a number of language testing projects in various parts of the world--the Far East, Mid-East, Africa and Europe--and in particular to two projects I have been involved in at home: the new English Language Testing Service recently brought into use in Britian and overseas,[1,2] and the new Royal Society of Arts Examination in the Communicative Use of English due to be made available in 1981.[3,4]

Three major features of the above projects have been constantly borne in mind during the processes of test development. First, the focus has been on language *use* as well as (and sometimes instead of) language *usage* in specifying the tasks presented in the tests. Although a mastery of linguistic tools (of usage) is certainly a significant factor in assessing communicative performance (in use), and linguistically rated performance doubtless correlates with communicatively rated performance, the two terms are not synonymous. Therefore, if we were to devise effective testing instruments, we would have to incorporate into our test model a systematic and detailed specification of user requirements at the purposive, contextual and strategic levels.[5]

Our second focus arises from the disappointing, even stultifying results of norm-references, especially correlational, statistics whereby highly abstract data-derived schemata have been reified to the point of pedagogic incredibility, so that it has come to be believed that highly complex communicative-linguistic behavior can be adequately assessed via the artificial task of filling gaps in written and spoken texts. The results of one project leads me to believe that elaborate test procedures and data analyses have not been able to solve our test problems because of the indeterminacy of the original, conventional, design model. In short, it has not been possible accurately to decide what our statistical results mean because we had not beforehand adequately described the types of behavior we wished to test.[5]

Our third consideration has been to keep constantly in mind the interrelationship between needs (or purposes), learning programs and test instruments. To operate any single component without regard to its effects on the others would invite the kind of damage which tests and examinations have so often done to education. I believe the value of a test is to be seen not only in its measurement characteristics, such as its reliability and validity, but also in the nature of its contribution to the curriculum system in total.

In truth, the disciplines of grammar and statistics have not so far been used in such a way as to provide satisfactory answers to our language assessment problems; the first discipline being restricted to only a sector of the communication field, the other brought forward to explain linguistic phenomena from data whose bases have not been made sufficiently explicit. In searching to break this deadlock, we have replaced the earlier crude "four-skill" model (see Fig. 2) by a much more complex and purposive scheme derived from that of Mumby[6] and illustrated in Fig. 1.

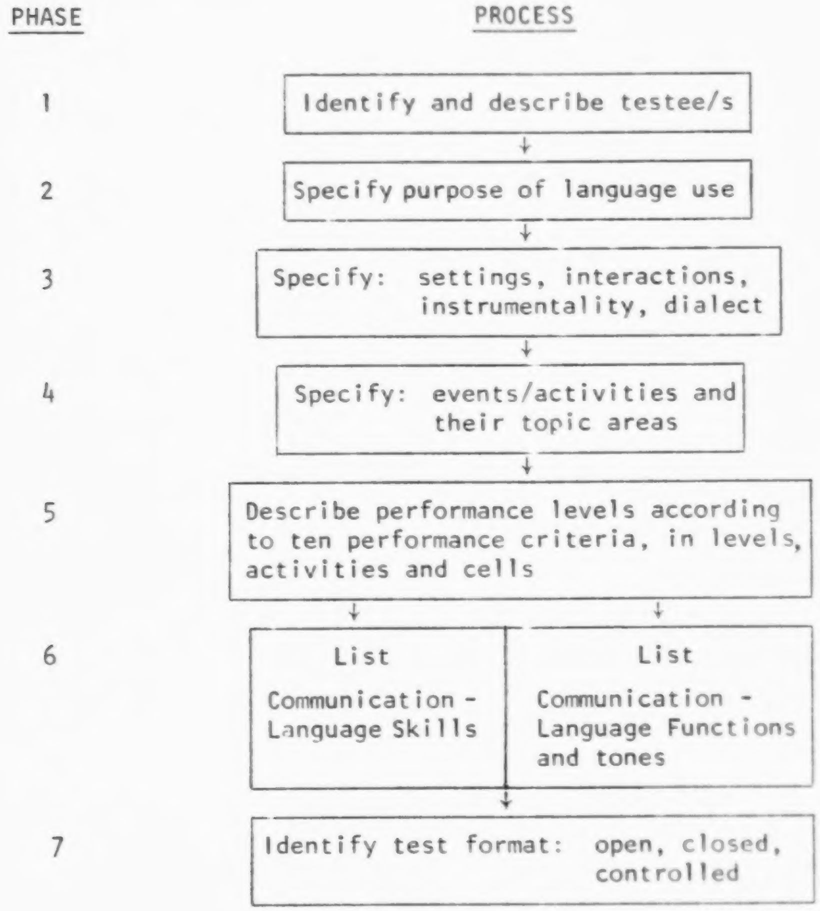

PHASE
PROCESS
1
Identify and describe testee/s
2
Specify purpose of language use
3
Specify: settings, interactions, instrumentality, dialect
4
Specify: events/activities and their topic areas
5
Describe performance levels according to ten performance criteria, in levels, activities and cells
6
List
Communication - Language Skills
List
Communication - Language Functions and tones
7
Identify test format: open, closed, controlled

Figure 1. Model for Communicative Tests

Language Aspect / Skill	Pronunciation or Orthography	Grammar	Vocabulary	Other
Listening				
Speaking				
Reading				
Writing				

Figure 2. Commonly-Used Test Model

The procedures for using the communicative model in test development are described more fully in "Testing Communicative Performance."[7] In what follows I discuss certain key aspects of communicative test construction.

1. A SYSTEMS APPROACH

An integrated system of curriculum development will incorporate the specification of purpose, the devising of teacher/learner programs and the use of test instruments to assess how far the learner is achieving his goals. Testing is thus not a self-contained activity, but one affected by purposes and programs and will have its own impact on them. However, in reconciling the various and shifting objectives of the learner, his teacher and the external specifier and tester, I believe we must accept the prior status of purpose (or goal, or need) along which the whole system must be aligned.

2. TEST DESIGN

It is a great temptation to lift from the shelf a ready-made conventional test of "Language Proficiency." Adequate, if at all, for only the crudest of testing purposes, such an instrument is likely to lack relevance and validity insofar as it fails to incorporate critical features of the academic, occupational or social requirements of the learner or of the learning programs devised to meet those requirements. True, it is troublesome to devise afresh special tests for each specific purpose, and the creative leap from needs specification to a workable test instrument is not an easy one, yet no off-the-peg solution, such as the classic cloze test, is able to meet all the communicative objectives revealed by a detailed initial specification.

3. SPECIFIC PURPOSES AND THE LEARNER

To the learner--the principal character in our play--all language needs are to an extent specific; not only because the future settings for his language use are peculiar to him alone, but also because he has a unique personal perception of his own goals and of the learning strategies by which he can best achieve them. Again, a reconciliation is needed; this time between the learner's aspirations, the special constraints of teaching and testing and the often harsh demands for life--resources *are* scarce and jobs and educational courses *do* demand certain levels of performance.

4. AUTHENTICITY

Authenticity has become a controversial term in language teaching not least because it has been thought that a satisfactory program (or test) can be constructed by throwing together a number of tasks which have been observed to be needed on the job. Divorced, however, from their daily settings and jostling together in their new, random environment, these tasks necessarily lose their pristine authenticity and no random set of tasks, however "authentic" in or by themselves, will provide us with the answer to our test design problem. What we need is both to select and to structure the test tasks within the framework of a purposive, detailed specification model and within a test setting credible to the testee. To achieve these ends, simulation and role-playing are particularly appropriate and make for test operations which, removed from real life to some degree, do have psychological authenticity once the implications of the role "testee" have been accepted. In all cases, the authentic test tasks themselves can only be a small sample of the total task universe, and are to be used to uncover in action the underlying skills and strategies which influence communicative performance.

5. MEASUREMENT

Nowhere more than in language testing can one see the unfortunate results of over-reliance on one or two contributory disciplines. On the one hand, the linguist's delight--the devising of tests to elicit information about acoustic, lexical or syntactic bits treated in an utterly context-free and purposeless fashion. On the other, the tyranny of the statistician, whose lack of insight into communicative phenomena may prove no barrier to his erecting ever more complex psychometric edifices so that, like the eager tourist unable to comment on his travels until the photos have been developed, the ordinary teacher fears to assess his own tests until the statistician has printed out a test data analysis for him. The emphasis on statistical techniques is re-enacted in the pressure for test reliability and the need for variance (or "spread") in test scores. Although a search for variance in itself may be appropriate in cases where one has merely to rank testees, its effects become unhealthy when items acceptable in their content on design grounds are squeezed out because they do not meet criteria of testee discrimination. Thus, the effects of over-emphasis on statistics can be unhealthy, first, by covering up for basic specification faults in the original design model and then by distorting test content by eliminating items just because they do not meet internal discriminatory criteria.

The zenith of dependence on variance is seen in the use of correlation coefficients and factor analysis of correlation matrices. If performance on a particular task, say oral communication, is seen to correlate significantly with performance on another, say gap-filling in written texts, can one of the tasks safely be eliminated from the future test battery? There are, I believe, three main grounds why it would be inadvisable to eliminate a particular test on correlational grounds alone, namely, considerations based on the magnitude of the correlation, the nature of the overlapping variance and the effect on the curriculum system as a whole.

First, as regards the size of the correlation; a coefficient of +0.9 has a predictive value of only 56% better than chance, and one of +0.95 is only 69% better than chance. The commonly-quoted inter-test correlations of the order of +0.6 to +0.8[8] indicate a forecasting efficiency of no greater than 40%; not the predictive value which a wise man would wager too much money on, and hardly sufficient grounds for critical decisions about human beings. Secondly, the nature of the co-occurring variance is also highly suspect. Convergent-discriminant studies[8,9,10] generally indicate excessive amounts of method variance, the variance attributable to testing procedures being about the same as, or even larger than, that attributed to the traits under scrutiny. A good proportion of any inter-test correlation can thus be discounted as arising from artifacts of the test situation rather than from trait similarity. And this is not even including the broader "error" component. Above all, the test episode is not an isolated one, but is closely related to the whole framework for learning, so that even if the inter-test correlations were error-free, were free from method variance and approached unity (which is not the case) I would still consider it pedagogically irresponsible to eliminate from the test system on correlational grounds a test component which had genuine a priori design grounds for inclusion.

The adducing of a "General Verbal Factor," revealed by factor analysis, is even more suspect ground for homogenizing a test battery, as the alleged general factor can quite easily arise from the indeterminacy of the original model, the analysis not so much proving the existence of a general factor as being unable to distinguish the true factor pattern because of faulty design and/or test realizations. To return to the main point, then, I believe we have not been accurately measuring linguistic behavior because we have lacked an adequate purposive, detailed specificatory model. When we have not been testing properly, we have not been adequately describing the behavior we have aspired to measure.

6. BAND DESCRIPTIONS

One instrument we have used to maintain a degree of measurement with a meaningful description of performance has been the time-honored language scale, or band, system. The elements of the band system are levels, activities, cells and descriptors and the band levels can be brought into scale with objectively scored tests to provide a meaningful profile of performance for any testee. The band elements are described below.[11]

Levels: the number of scale intervals may be from 3 (e.g., good, average, poor) to anything up to 11 (e.g., the Foreign Service Institute Scale with categories 1 to 5 including subdivisions from 1 to 4; and possibly 0 and 0+). Our own projects draw on a 9 point scale (9 down to 1).

Activities: generally a mix of two or more modes such as conversation (listen - speak), note-making (read - write), etc., rather than just one of the traditional "four skills."

Cells: at the intersection of each level and activity whose performance descriptions are inserted.

Descriptors: a spelling-out of performance at an appropriate level of delicacy according to a set of performance criteria from such an inventory as: size, complexity, range, speed, flexibility, accuracy, appropriacy, independence, repetition and hesitation.[6]

We can thus provide either a brief outline of types of performance, as in the FSI Language Proficiency ratings, or a very detailed description as in the Oral Interaction scale described in "Testing Communicative Performance."[7] By a simple scaling procedure, the band performance can be linked with closed-ended, scored tests so that any testee can be given an individual profile, as shown in these four examples of English Language Testing Service profiles:

Sample ELTS Profiles

Test / Candidate	G 1	G 2	M 1	M 2	M 3	Overall
4729	6.0	5.5	7.5	6.5	6.0	6.5
4730	3.0	2.5	3.0	2.0	2.0	2.5
4731	6.5	8.0	8.5	7.0	8.0	7.5
4732	5.5	5.5	6.0	5.5	5.0	5.5
	(all scores to nearest half-band)					

A candidate's profile is matched with minimum "job profiles" for various types of training courses to decide either his suitability for a course or his language tuition requirements. Thus the subjective estimates of performance are reinforced by objective test scores, combining the most useful features of the two types of measure.

7. GROUP ACTIVITIES

Much of the discussion on testing concerns *individual* performance yet, communication being primarily an inter-personal phenomenon, there is much to be said for assessing communicative behavior on a pair or group basis. We are devising scales for judging the effectiveness of intra-group communication in accomplishing given tasks. In this exercise if an individual were to be judged, it would be according as he fulfills his role, however humble, in assisting the group to achieve its objectives. The inclusion of such group tasks in the examination framework is an important step in motivating group work in language learning programs; indeed the curriculum effects may well be more significant than the measurement element itself.[12]

8. LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

To repeat the crucial point made in our introduction, tests which require the manipulation of language forms can tell us only half of the story because they fail to include major parameters of linguistic behavior--the strategies, purposes and the rules of language use in defined settings. It is profitable, therefore, to establish beforehand whether, or to what extent, a test should contain real (or at least realistic, simulated) tasks or whether the focus should be on the mastery of those skills which enable the tasks to be carried out. Even then, such "enabling" skills are best tested in the context of realistic test tasks.

9. JUDGING COMMUNICATIVE VALUE

Whereas linguistic accuracy can be judged relatively simply, communicative value depends on a range of factors many of which will be not basically linguistic. To assess oral performance, for example, we may vary the difficulty of the task and/or judge the value of the performance according to such variables as:

Channel: face-to-face, phone, tape, film.

Fluency: speed, coherence, absence of hesitation or of undue repetition.

Dialect: the language variety used.

Affect: The appropriacy and facility of conveying or comprehending attitudes.

Text type: register, style, format of language.

Status: the relative dominance and social distance of the participants.

Topic expectancy: familiarity with the topic at hand.

"Noise": both acoustic *re* distortion of sound, and psychological *re* gaps, interruptions and interference.

Length: duration of the total episode and of the relative contributions of the participants.

Non-language support: use of visuals, diagrams, symbols, media, body movement and understanding of situations.

Diversity: number of topics, focuses and switches.

Linguistic accuracy: acceptability/correctness of usage, pronunciation, vocabulary.

Overall effectiveness: adequacy in handling the interaction as a whole.[13]

We are developing studies to discover how variables such as the above contribute to effectiveness in oral interaction and how they can be related and weighted in assessment, and thus used in both the devising of oral tests and the assessment of oral performance. Such research, I believe would do much more to improve our insights into communicative behavior than ever more studies into the non-communicative discrete categories of listening, speaking, reading and writing judged in terms of the linguistic characteristics of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and fluency.

10. CONCLUSION

The main points of my thesis may be condensed as follows:

- The distinctions, as well as the relationships between communication and language.
- The distinction between usage and use.
- The dangers of over-riding concern with statistics, especially norm-referenced and correlational techniques.
- The crucial inter-dependence of programs, purposes and testing.
- The need for a complex, strategic and purposive model to replace the currently-used simplistic "four-skill" model.
- The need to accommodate learner motivation and task perception to any externally-devised specification of needs.
- The development of band theory and the integration of subjective and objective elements in a test.
- The desirability of developing criteria to assess the effectiveness of *group*, as well as individual, performance.
- The distinction between test tasks and the enabling skills which lie behind test performance.
- The need for a wide range of descriptors derived from a variety of performance criteria.

To conclude with an analogy. Many of the critical points just outlined can be discussed in terms of the driving test. It may be found, for example, that there is a fairly high correlation between a learner's actual driving performance on the road and his performance in a simulated car interior where he reacts to filmed stimuli. Would we be justified in doing away with an actual driving test on the basis of this correlation? Obviously, for early training and the assessment of learning potential, such a simulated setting would have many advantages in that the learner is able to develop the enabling skills of driving in fairly stress-free conditions. But this is a very different matter from leaving all the assessment at the level of enabling skills. The basic constraints of a test situation are also illustrated in the driving test, which cannot completely replicate actual driving conditions. First, there is an observer on hand; then, night driving and motor-way driving are not allowed; again, problems encountered in driving very long distances over an extended period can rarely be revealed in a short test. As a measurement procedure, perhaps too much depends on the subjective impressions and the personal prejudices of the driving inspector, and it is unduly affected by nervousness induced by the test situation leading to a typical over-reaction to small incidents.

Such are the points touched on in my discussion on language testing; and clearly there is no easy optimum formula to balance out such a mass of considerations. Perhaps much will have been achieved if we realize the primitive stage of language testing at present and the magnitude of the work still needed for us to understand and, thus, to assess, linguistic-communicative behavior.

REFERENCES

[1] Carroll, B.J., 1978, *Specifications for an English Language Testing Service*. London: British Council.

[2] *Handbook*. London: English Language Testing Service, British Council (in preparation).

[3] Morrow, K.E., 1978, *Techniques of Evaluation for a Notional Syllabus*. London: Royal Society of Arts.

[4] Royal Society of Arts, 1980, *Specifications: Examinations in the Communicative Use of English as a Foreign Language*. London: Royal Society of Arts.

[5] Carroll, B.J., 1980, "The Relative Contributions in Testing of Linguistic and Communicative Factors," paper delivered to Colorado TESOL.

[6] Munby, J.L., 1978, *Communicative Syllabus Design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[7] Carroll, B.J., 1980, *Testing Communicative Performance*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

[8] Clark, J.L.D., ed., 1978, *Direct Testing of Speaking Proficiency*. Princeton, ETS, 193 ff.

[9] Campbell, D.I., and D.W. Fiske, 1967, "Convergent and Discriminant Validation by the Multitrait-Multimethod Matrix," in Mehrens, W.A., ed., 1967, *Principles of Educational and Psychological Measurement*. Chicago: Rand McNally.

[10] Carroll, B.J., 1979, "A Communicative View of Convergent-Discriminant Validation," Typescript Paper to TESOL Current Study.

[11] Carroll, B.J., 1979, "A Common Standard Scale for Language Assessment," paper prepared for international conference at ETS, Princeton.

[12] Note: References to "Crescent" English Language programme, *and* Oxford Modern Language Project.

[13] Note: List of variables has been devised in discussion with J.L.D. Clark and P.E. Woodford of ETS Princeton on common language scale project referred to in (11) above.

NEW ORIENTATIONS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE SYLLABUS CONSTRUCTION IN FINLAND IN THE 1970'S

SAULI TAKALA
University of Jyväskylä
Finland

Studies in Language Learning (1982), 4, 56-97.

0. INTRODUCTION

Let me start this case study with some factual information concerning the scope of language teaching in Finland. Finland is officially a bilingual country with Finnish and Swedish as the equal national languages. The constitution states that the material and cultural needs of both groups have to be served on an equal basis. In Finland this means, among other things, that we have parallel educational systems for the speakers of both languages from kindergarten to higher and adult education. We have always taken pride in the fact that we have a very liberal language policy.

Since neither Finnish nor Swedish are vehicles of international communication, we are obliged to take language teaching seriously. And since it has always been accepted, more or less but never wholly unanimously, that the national languages should be included among compulsory subjects, the scope of language teaching in Finland is quite large, larger than in most comparable countries. International comparisons are frequently cited by people who would rather like to increase the proportion of the mother tongue, sciences, mathematics, etc., at the expense of foreign languages. A national commission on language teaching policy, which recently submitted a unanimous report to the Ministry of Education, pointed out, however, that while international comparisons of syllabuses and timetables are useful, language teaching policy must obviously be based on national needs and conditions.

In the new comprehensive school every pupil studies the other national language (Swedish or Finnish) and a foreign language. About 90% of all Finnish-speaking pupils start with English in the third grade (age 9). Practically all Swedish-speaking pupils start with Finnish in grade 3 and English in grade 5. There has never been streaming or setting during the first four years of foreign language studies. For Finnish-speaking students, another compulsory language starts in grade 7. Originally, during grades 7 through 9 there were three sets in the first language and two sets in the second language. Pupils chose sets towards the end of the sixth grade but they could change sets if they had chosen either a too easy or too difficult set. However, the question of sets dominated public discussion in educational circles in Finland, because the choice of the lowest sets ("C-stream") meant that the pupil could not go to the academic upper secondary school. Also some lines in the vocational school were out of reach. Streaming ended in 1982.

It is also possible to choose a third language as an optional subject in the eighth and ninth grades of the comprehensive school. This option is annually taken by some 30% of all pupils.

If the pupil goes to the upper secondary school he continues the languages started in the comprehensive school. At present the other national language and two foreign languages are obligatory and a third foreign language is optional. If the recent plans are realized, every pupil will continue the study of foreign languages in the vocational school as well. The amount will vary considerably according to the type and level of line. One of the reasons for this new policy is the fact that the knowledge of languages is becoming an integral part of vocational competence at all levels including crafts and trades. Another reason is the wish to open up the channel from the secondary vocational sector to higher education, and in higher education a good knowledge of languages is a sine qua non.

During the first four years (grades 3-6) study of the chosen foreign language takes 7.8% of all class time. The number of lessons is typically 2 or 3 a week throughout all seven years of FL study in the comprehensive school. During the upper level (grades 7-9) the proportion is considerably higher: 16.5% of all class time if the pupil studies only the two compulsory languages, and 20.5% if the pupil also studies the third optional language. In the upper secondary school the proportion varies from 30% to 45% depending on whether the pupil studies the optional fourth language or not. According to Cabinet guidelines from November 30, 1978, the subjects of general education common to all pupils in vocational schools would consist of 500 hours during the first so-called broadly based first year, and after that of 830 hours in craft-level and of 1400 hours in technician-level schools. According to preliminary plans the other national language would have 57 hours during the first year and after that 57-114 hours in the craft-level schools and 171 hours in technician-level schools. While there may be some changes in these figures, they do not alter the basic fact that a major development is taking place, i.e., modern language study is now accepted as an integral part of all vocational education. The old dichotomy of academic vs. practical education is weakening. In a country like Finland the knowledge of foreign languages is increasingly becoming an essential part of occupational competence.

One of the new features of the on-going degree reform in higher education is that foreign language study and a pass in an examination will be required by all faculties, when earlier it was common in only some faculties. All universities have established language centers either separately or as a joint institute. There is also a national Center for the Finnish Universities at the University of Jyväskylä, which acts as a coordinating clearinghouse.

1. FACTORS AFFECTING SYLLABUS CONSTRUCTION

Curricula and syllabuses are among the most important factors that guide the construction of teaching materials and teaching itself. As the importance of knowing what guides teachers' activities has increased along with a growing awareness of teachers' crucial role in carrying out the educational objectives, there has emerged a special line of study called curriculum research. After more than ten years' work on various aspects of the curriculum the author has come to the conclusion that HOW the curriculum should be constructed depends on a number of factors. This might be illustrated in the following way (Takala, 1979, p. 59):

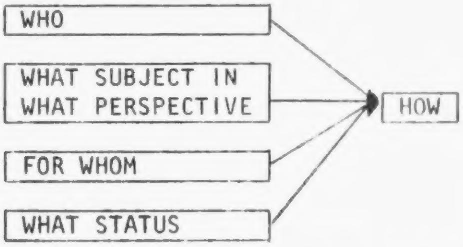


Figure 1. Factors affecting the form of the curriculum.

Who constructs the curriculum? Is it all done centrally so that teachers only work *with* the curriculum? Or will curriculum construction be a hierarchical process, i.e., will there be contributions at all levels from the national level to the individual teacher level? Are the teachers expected to work *on* the curriculum, interpreting it to suit local circumstances, as well as work with the curriculum? The subject also has a definite impact as such. We do not expect the mathematics syllabus to resemble very closely the foreign language syllabus. But even within the same subject there are a number of possible varieties depending on how the subject, in this case language, is conceived of. What is our perspective, our view of language and of the functions of language? Changes in perspective have brought about changes in syllabuses.

As in all human communication it is very important to take into account the communication partner(s), it is necessary in syllabus construction to remind ourselves of our possible target groups. For whom is the syllabus intended? There are several possible target groups: political decision-makers, general public, employers, writers of teaching materials, teacher educators, examining boards, teachers and pupils. The more the author has thought about this question the more he tends to believe that we need different versions of varying degree of specificity intended for different target groups. We cannot expect to be able to communicate properly with such diverse groups unless we tailor our message to suit each group.

How we should construct the foreign language syllabus also depends on what status it is to have. Will what is written be binding in terms of what should be taught or even what should be learned, or is the curriculum only a guideline, a road map, to help teaching proceed in a desired direction? It makes quite a difference if a detailed curriculum is a binding document or only one possible exemplification of the general objectives of teaching. In the latter case the curriculum would be a kind of yardstick or point of reference for teachers' and textbook writers' work on the curriculum. Thus we can conclude that there is not, and can never be, a definitive curriculum or any one best curriculum for all times and for all circumstances. As there are no universally valid tests, there are no universally valid curricula or syllabuses. Both tests and syllabuses are valid only under specific circumstances and for specific purposes.

2. OVERVIEW OF FL SYLLABUS DEVELOPMENTS IN FINLAND IN THE 1970'S

The purpose of this overview is to show the major developments in FL syllabus construction in Finland in the 1970's and to indicate how they were influenced by some trends in FL teaching in some other countries.

Perhaps the greatest change in this work that took place in the 1970's in comparison to earlier work was the fact that syllabus construction was done in a more principled and systematic way. Thus, whereas earlier syllabuses had usually been prepared by groups consisting of teachers and school inspectors only, in the 1970's research-based knowledge and researchers played a very important role. One of the consequences of this development was that explicit criteria were formulated concerning the task at hand. Another major change was that research literature from other countries and syllabuses from other countries were systematically consulted and utilized. Syllabus construction became more institutionalized, more systematic and more explicit. Effective feedback mechanisms were also developed so that syllabuses were tried out during several years before they were revised and officially approved. Earlier syllabuses were often sent out for comments and then approved without trying them out in schools.

All of the 1970's was a hectic period of FL syllabus construction. The present author was continuously engaged in this work from the beginning of 1972 to the end of 1980, usually as the secretary of the committees and working parties, doing the work in addition to the regular research project work. More than twenty full-length FL syllabuses, often with lengthy rationales and methodological suggestions, were prepared for six languages: English, Swedish as a second language, Finnish as a second language, German, French, and Russian. The LULU syllabus and VIKKE syllabus (see Fig. 2) acted as models, which helped a great deal in this enormous task. These syllabuses covered the primary and lower secondary stage, the upper secondary stage, and adult education. There was also very intensive work at the university level. In fact, systematic work on FL syllabus construction started at the beginning of 1972, when the Freihoff-Takala working party started developing a communicative model of describing FL teaching objectives.

In addition to the active and systematic work on FL syllabus construction, a major new line of development was the definition of a national language teaching policy by a blue-ribbon committee, which submitted its unanimous report to the Ministry of Education in February 1979.

The major developments in FL syllabus construction in Finland and their relations with developments in other countries are shown in Fig. 2. The list of references is selective and designed to show only the most important sources of influence.

3. DEVELOPMENTS IN THE 1960'S

The first major step in developing language teaching in Finland was the extension of FL teaching to primary schools (cf. Takala and Saari, 1979; Saari and Takala, 1980) starting from the middle of the 1960's. The main reason was the wish to increase educational equality in terms of curricular offerings. The syllabus was approved in 1963. Main organizational and syllabus influences came from Sweden.

Educational equality was the main reason for the introduction of the comprehensive school, which now covers the age group from 7 to 16 (a 9-year school). In fact, the greatest change in terms of syllabus content was that all pupils now study foreign languages, not only one but two. The decision in favor of two compulsory languages was made in the face of stout opposition from some of the main architects of the comprehensive reform. Major influences on the FL syllabuses from abroad came from the Council of Europe Ostia and Ankara conference resolutions and from the Swedish comprehensive school curriculum. The draft syllabus was tried out during three years and approved in 1970.

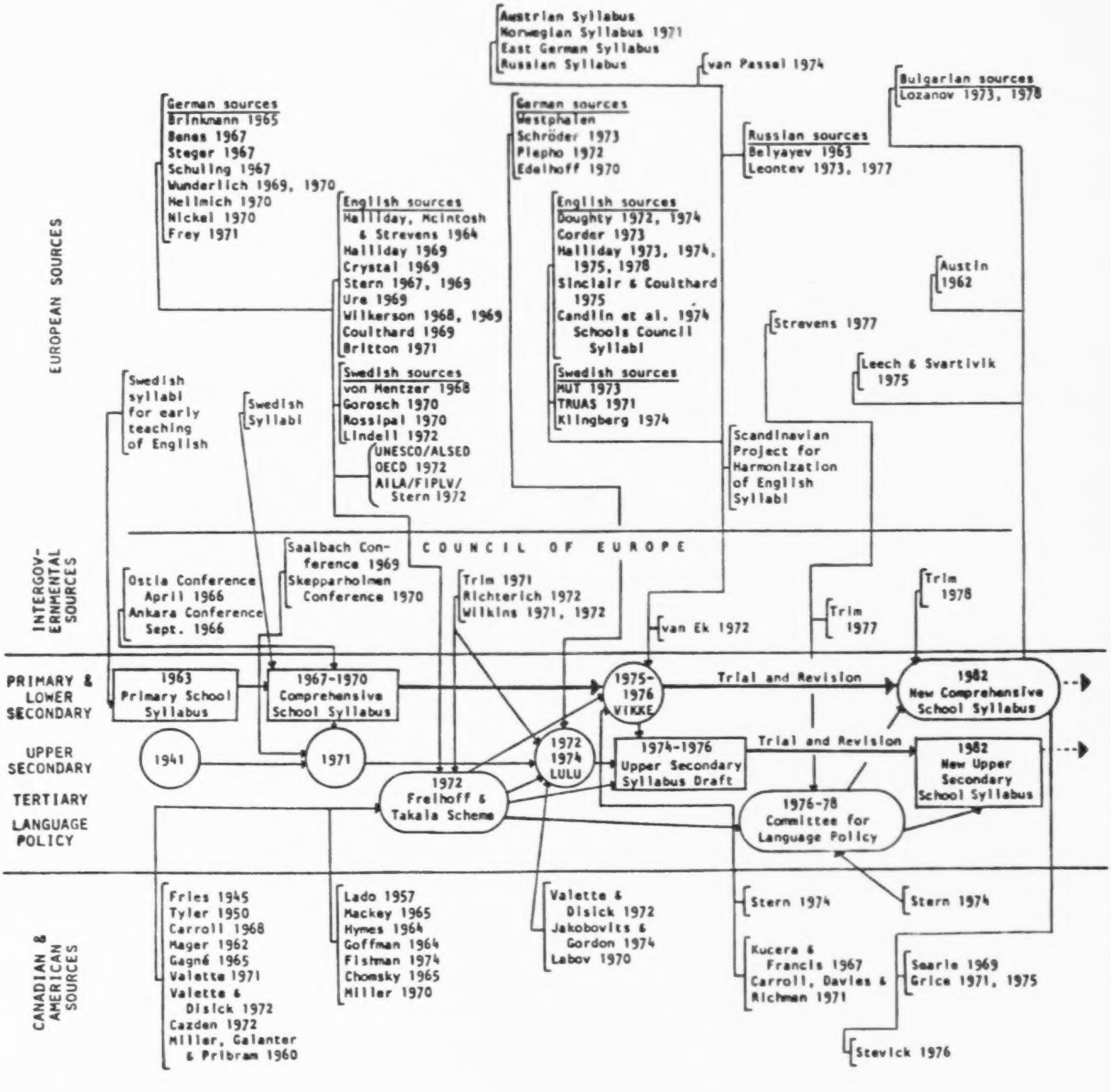

EUROPEAN SOURCES
INTERGOV-ERNMENTAL SOURCES
PRIMARY & LOWER SECONDARY
UPPER SECONDARY
TERTIARY
LANGUAGE POLICY
CANADIAN & AMERICAN SOURCES
Austrian Syllabus
Norwegian Syllabus 1971
East German Syllabus
Russian Syllabus
van Passel 1974
Bulgarian sources
Lozanov 1973, 1978
German sources
Brinkmann 1965
Benes 1967
Steger 1967
Schuling 1967
Wunderlich 1969, 1970
Hellmich 1970
Nickel 1970
Frey 1971
German sources
Westphalen
Schröder 1973
Piepho 1972
Edelhoff 1970
Russian sources
Belyayev 1963
Leontev 1973, 1977
English sources
Halliday, McIntosh & Strevens 1964
Halliday 1969
Crystal 1969
Stern 1967, 1969
Ure 1969
Wilkerson 1968, 1969
Coulthard 1969
Britton 1971
English sources
Doughty 1972, 1974
Corder 1973
Halliday 1973, 1974, 1975, 1978
Sinclair & Coulthard 1975
Candlin et al. 1974
Schools Council Syllabi
Austin 1962
Strevens 1977
Leech & Svartvik 1975
Swedish syllabi for early teaching of English
Swedish Syllabi
Swedish sources
von Mentzer 1968
Gorosch 1970
Rossipal 1970
Lindell 1972
Swedish sources
MUT 1973
TRUAS 1971
Klingberg 1974
UNESCO/ALSED
OECD 1972
AILA/FIPLV/ Stern 1972
Scandinavian Project for Harmonization of English Syllabi
COUNCIL OF EUROPE
Saalbach Conference 1969
Skepparholmen Conference 1970
Ostia Conference April 1966
Ankara Conference Sept. 1966
Trim 1971
Richterich 1972
Wilkins 1971, 1972
van Ek 1972
Trim 1977
Trim 1978
1963 Primary School Syllabus
1967-1970 Comprehensive School Syllabus
1975-1976 VIKKE
Trial and Revision
1982 New Comprehensive School Syllabus
1941
1971
1972 1974 LULU
1974-1976 Upper Secondary Syllabus Draft
Trial and Revision
1982 New Upper Secondary School Syllabus
1972 Freihoff & Takala Scheme
1976-78 Committee for Language Policy
Fries 1945
Tyler 1950
Carroll 1968
Mager 1962
Gagné 1965
Valette 1971
Valette & Disick 1972
Cazden 1972
Miller, Galanter & Pribram 1960
Lado 1957
Mackey 1965
Hymes 1964
Goffman 1964
Fishman 1974
Chomsky 1965
Miller 1970
Valette & Disick 1972
Jakobovits & Gordon 1974
Labov 1970
Stern 1974
Stern 1974
Kucera & Francis 1967
Carroll, Davies & Richman 1971
Searle 1969
Grice 1971, 1975
Stevick 1976

Figure 2. Major recent developments in foreign language syllabus construction in Finland and their relationship with trends in foreign language teaching in some other countries.

4. DEVELOPMENTS IN THE EARLY 1970'S

4.1 *Higher Education*

Increased awareness in the early 1970's of problems in syllabus construction in Finland was, in a large measure, due to extensive R & D work on the teaching of foreign languages to non-language majors at universities and to the expansion of language laboratories at universities. In both sectors the problems of syllabus construction were clearly recognized. This led to the Ministry of Education setting up a working party to work out a system for describing the objectives of language teaching. It is important to emphasize that it was, indeed, a system that was intended, not a specific definition of objectives for some particular course. This work was carried out by Mr. Roland Freihoff and the author. One of the sources of influence in our work, but probably not the most important, was the early publications of the Council of Europe unit-credit project. The main sources were German and British literature on applied linguistics. The system is an attempt to define communicative tasks in terms of communicative purposes set in the context of certain communication situations. It is a taxonomic synthesis, which draws upon a variety of sources: psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, communication theory, pragmalinguistics, stylistics, translation theory and language didactics. The system was so designed that it would be hospitable to a wide range of applications: from macro-level syllabus description to a detailed breakdown of specific communicative tasks in specific situations.

The Freihoff-Takala (1974) system for describing the objectives of language teaching has the following major variables or parameters, each of which is further broken down to several subvariables:

(1) Topics, i.e., the domains, facts, etc., that are addressed.

(2) Framework of communication/situational factors: these include the relationship between communication partners, their attitudes toward the topic, physical and temporal parameters, etc.

(3) Stages of the communication process and their basic functions: here a distinction is made between contact-oriented, information-oriented and argumentative communication; stages in communication process are outlined and their characteristic features are described.

(4) Mode of communication: this is mainly related to the way in which the topic is processed and special emphasis is given to the input-output relations. Three main modes are distinguished: repetition, various ways of responding to and processing a received message, and original thought (self-initiation).

(5) Form and channel of message: reception and sending of a message through the visual or auditory channel (listening and reading comprehension, speaking and writing and their interaction, i.e., communication proper). This group also includes the potential use of different media (e.g., telephone, tape, overhead projector, etc.).

(6) Code: this relates to the verbal and non-verbal means of expression and their application rules.

The use of the system is illustrated by a fictional account of a maximally difficult communicative task, which borders on a communicative nightmare. The description is based on the assumption that all aspects are recognized by the parties concerned.

Participants. The speaker is in comparison to the hearer (a) in a lower social position in terms of age, level of education, occupation, etc., and (b) introvert while the hearer is extrovert. (c) The speaker is presumed or known to be a supporter of some movement (religion, ideology, school of thought) which is less prestigious or influential than the one supported by the hearer. In the situation the speaker (d) is compelled to stress his distance from the hearer and he is (e) negatively disposed to the hearer and vice versa.

Topic. The speaker (a) sees the topic from a different--and positive--perspective than does the hearer (negative). The topic is dealt with (b) in an argumentative mode, and the speaker (c) knows the topic less well than the hearer.

Time. The speaker is not capable of the same (a) fluency as the hearer and (b) is obliged to rack his memory since he has not read about the matter recently. (c) The information density of his talk is embarrassingly small in comparison to that of the hearer.

Place. The speaker has no opportunity to use any (a) audiovisual aids or objects but is instead obliged to present everything verbally. The situation is (b) public (e.g., TV-discussion), in which the speaker has to move about and use some equipment which only hampers his performance.

Noise. The discussion takes place (a) out-of-doors, e.g., in a cafe and next to a major thoroughfare. The hearer (b) speaks the language of communication fluently but with a very strong accent. The speaker (c) is hungry and at the next table he sees his boss who is enjoying a delicious meal and quite obviously listening to what his employee is saying. (d) Technical preparations and rehearsal take much time. In the end the speaker is (e) so exhausted and mentally stressed that he can hardly say a word.

4.2 *Upper Secondary School Syllabus for Non-graded Teaching (LULU)*

Syllabus work continued at the upper secondary level immediately after the Freihoff-Takala scheme had been completed. In this work (in which the author served as secretary) we could draw on that scheme, the early version of van Ek's threshold syllabus for adults and Valette's work on modern language performance objectives. The final draft syllabus defined the overall aims of language teaching, macro-level objectives for six major cultural areas or role clusters (private person, consumer, employee, citizen, learner, self), which were also described in more detail in micro-level performance objectives.

In the following will be presented a brief summary of the approach to the definition of objectives in the 1975 syllabus draft. In accordance with the Freihoff and Takala system three levels were used: overall objectives, macro-level objectives, micro-level objectives.

Overall objective/aim. The pupil is expected to be able to understand and use the target language orally and in writing, within the linguistic repertoire s/he has been taught, in such a way that in a communication situation s/he can initiate, maintain and receive a personal contact as well as receive and give information in a way appropriate to the situation.

The overall objective was broken down into macro-level objectives/goals, which were defined for the following six situational or role domains (see this article, p. 65). Personal contacts will be selected to illustrate macro-level objectives.

Macro-level objectives/goals. In order to be able to cope with personal language contacts the pupil is expected to be able, within the linguistic repertoire taught:

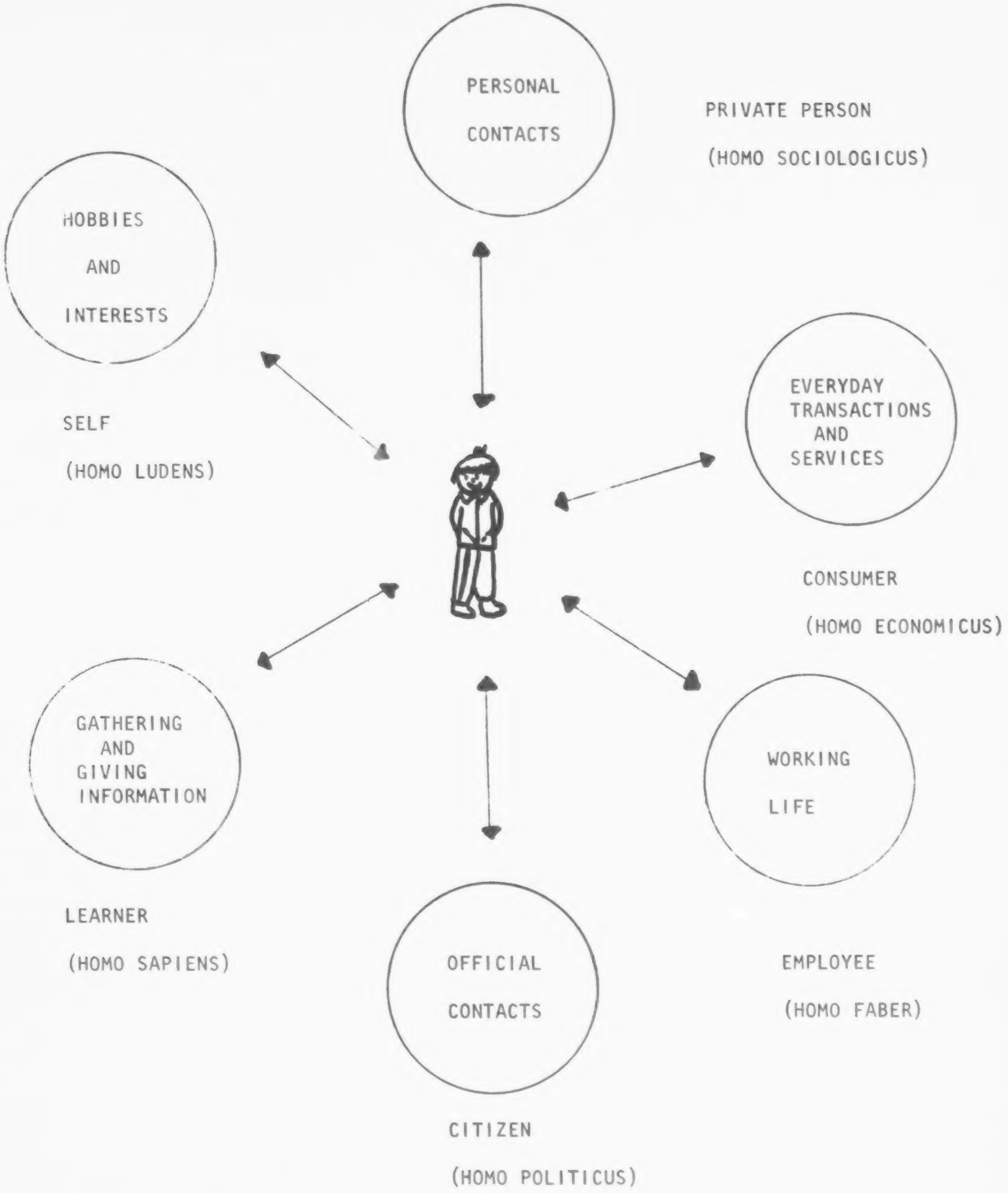
- to understand the target language (TL) speech so that s/he can respond to what has been said in a situation-appropriate way;
- to speak the TL so that s/he is able to start and maintain a personal conversation; and
- to understand and write personal notes and messages.

In order to help in defining micro-level objectives we prepared what we called goal-definition forms (see this article, p. 66). The forms were used as an aid in defining micro-level objectives.

Micro-level objectives. Typical of personal contacts is the fact that the language in them is informal in register. Contacts take place between, e.g., family members, friends, acquaintances, colleagues/workmates. Language use situations presuppose mainly oral skills: understanding and speaking of the TL but also reading and writing to a lesser extent. Topics dealt with in personal contacts are almost infinite in number. Language usage is often characterized by a special jargon not readily understood by an outsider. This jargon, however, changes fairly rapidly and cannot really be taught in school. Personal contacts also reflect the customs and attitudes of different cultures. "Family" and "relations" refer here to a family whose vicissitudes are followed during the course and/or possibly to the pupil's host family while staying abroad.

The objective of teaching is that:

- the pupil can greet and take leave in various personal contacts and is aware of social differences in different types of greetings and farewells;
- the pupil can introduce himself/herself and also introduce his/her family and friends, etc.;
- the pupil can respond in an appropriate way to being introduced and to somebody being introduced to him/her;
- the pupil can take part in conversation dealing with familiar everyday topics;
- the pupil can also start a conversation about familiar everyday topics;
- the pupil can use typical fillers and feedback phrases in conversation;


PERSONAL CONTACTS
PRIVATE PERSON
(HOMO SOCIOLOGICUS)
HOBBIES AND INTERESTS
SELF
(HOMO LUDENS)
EVERYDAY TRANSACTIONS AND SERVICES
CONSUMER
(HOMO ECONOMICUS)
GATHERING AND GIVING INFORMATION
LEARNER
(HOMO SAPIENS)
WORKING LIFE
EMPLOYEE
(HOMO FABER)
OFFICIAL CONTACTS
CITIZEN
(HOMO POLITICUS)

SPECIFICATION FORM FOR FL TEACHING OBJECTIVES

PERSONAL CONTACTS

SITUATIONS (Activity)

Contacts within family and relatives

Contacts between friends and acquaintances

Contacts between workmates

TOPICS (Contents)

- home
- family
- relatives
- acquaintances
- friends
- school
- things at work
- daily chores
- interests
- sparetime pursuits

LINGUISTIC EXPONENTS (Products)

	Act.	Pass.	Not relevant
Oral:			
Greetings			
Introductions			
Leavetaking			
Fillers/feedback			
Chatting			
Conversation (also over the phone)			
Orders, requests, suggestions			
Telling & describing			
Written: Messages			
-letters			
-postcards			
-notes			

- the pupil can answer the phone and carry out various transactions by phone;
- the pupil can understand and use orders, exhortations, requests, prohibitions and suggestions;
- the pupil can understand a verbal account of everyday events, experiences and feelings;
- the pupil can tell about everyday events, experiences in his/her life and about his/her feelings and views on things;
- the pupil can understand and write short messages concerning some important piece of information, prohibition, order, etc.;
- the pupil can understand and express thanks, felicitations, invitations, apologies both orally and in written form; and
- the pupil can keep contact with friends through postcards and letters.

5. DEVELOPMENTS IN THE MID-1970'S: COMMON CORE SYLLABUS FOR THE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL (VIKKE)

The question of educational equality returned with a new vigor after the comprehensive school system had started to take over. At this time it focused on the system of setting in foreign languages and mathematics. The reason was that the choice of the lowest sets was accompanied with administrative limitations for eligibility for post-comprehensive school studies. There were several committees which recommended the definition of such basic objectives and basic subject matter that would open the doors to all post-comprehensive education. Working parties were set up in late 1975 to prepare such proposals. In this work we could draw on our own previous work, the Schools Council modern languages project, the Threshold project, the Swedish MUT project, etc. The Cabinet issued a policy statement according to which the definition of basic objectives would be undertaken with a view to opening up all channels of secondary-level education to all pupils who are found to have achieved the basic objectives. In the following will be given relatively detailed extracts from the "Proposal for Common Core Syllabus in English and Swedish" submitted by the working party to the National Board of General Education in 1976. A considerable number of pages are devoted to the syllabus produced by the working party partly because it represented a new, relatively systematic approach to syllabus planning and partly because the syllabus has exerted a lot of influence in Finland. The author served as the secretary of the working party.

5.1 *Principles in the Construction of the Common Core Syllabus*

The working party discussed the general principles guiding its work as follows (National Board of General Education, 1976, pp. 7-10).

In order for the curriculum to give a correct picture of the nature and functions of language, attention has to be paid to linguistic aspects in the construction of the curriculum for foreign languages. Equally important are pedagogical and psychological aspects, which guarantee that attention is paid to the pupil's language skill needs and the factors influencing language learning.

In order for the language curriculum to provide a clear basis for teaching, construction of teaching materials, evaluation of achievement, etc., it should be constructed so that it defines:

- the different manifestation forms of the language skill, i.e., what kind of linguistic behaviors (speaking, listening, reading and writing) the pupils should be able to carry out and what is their relative weighting?
- situations of language use: what kind of situations should the pupil be able to cope with by use of verbal and non-verbal means (such as facial expressions, gestures, etc.)?
- what kind of topics and notions the pupil should be able to understand and to express?
- communication tasks: what kind of communicative tasks (or functions) should the pupil be able to perform?
- vocabulary repertoire: how many and what kind of words and expressions should the pupil understand and be able to use?
- grammatical repertoire: what morphological and syntactical features should the pupil understand and be able to use?
- level of achievement: what level of linguistic realization should the pupil show in general and in each situation?

Language curricula can be constructed from different points of view. The three following curriculum types differ in their approach and may be called grammatical, situational and notional.

Grammatical curriculum.

Grammar	Examples
parts of speech	
• noun	block, hospital/-s
• adverb	far
• preposition	to
• verbal forms	to be
• present	can
• imperative	go!
syntax	turn
• declarative sentence	It is...
• direct question	Is it...?
• indirect question	..., where the...is
interrogatives	Where? How far?

The grammatical curriculum emphasizes the structural nature of language.

Situational curriculum.

SITUATION	LINGUISTIC FUNCTIONS AND THE RELATED CONCEPTS/TOPICS	LINGUISTIC FORM OF REALIZATION	
a person is lost in a strange town and needs help	addressing a person	Excuse me, but...	
	asking and answering, with regard to • place • direction • distance	Can you tell me...? Where is...? How far is it to...?	Turn right. It's five blocks.
	thanking and responding to it	Thank you.	Not at all.

The situational curriculum emphasizes the linkage between the language and the situation: when and in what situation does the pupil need the language he is studying?

Functional-notional curriculum.

COMMUNICATIVE NEED	SITUATION	LINGUISTIC FORM OF REALIZATION
expressing the time	answering a question about the time of day	It's *five* (o'clock).
	answering a question about the train's departure	It'll depart *at five* (o'clock).
	answering a question about opening hours	It's open *from nine to six*.
making a suggestion	x suggests to y that they go for a walk	Let's go for a walk. Shall we go for a walk?
	host-guest	How about a cup of coffee? Would you like to have a cup of coffee?

The functional-notional curriculum emphasizes pupils' communication needs: what should the pupil understand and be able to express in the language he studies?

In the teaching of a foreign language, language can be conceived of primarily as activity. It is an *instrument*, which has many kinds of tasks (functions) in the life of both an individual and society. These tasks include, e.g., the expression of one's own experiences, the dissemination of information and the creation, maintenance, and controlling of social relationships. Language, despite its instrumental nature, always contains a message too, and in order to attain the overall educational aims of the school it is important that in instruction attention is paid to the contents of messages.

Language is activity which helps the pupils to cope with various situations occurring in their environment both orally and in writing. Thus the situational aspect of language is very important when the basic objectives and basic teaching are being defined.

The above curriculum models do not, however, exclude, but complement each other. Thus for example the notional aspect can be given increasing attention when basic structural aspects have been learned. Structures and words as well as expressions are largely determined by the communicative needs (the need to understand and express oneself) and by the central language use situations.

For this reason the usefulness ("surrender value") of each grammatical structure, word, and expression should be weighed carefully on the basis of its communicative value and meaningfulness in the commonly occurring language use situations. The pupil's linguistic products should also be evaluated primarily on the basis of how well the communicative need (intention) is satisfied (=criterion of successfulness) and how suitable they are in each situation (=felicity criterion).

5.2 *Relative Emphasis of Language Skills*

The working party was of the opinion that the subareas of language skill are to be emphasized in teaching according to what use value the different subareas have in situations demanding language skills. The comprehensive school curriculum emphasizes the importance of speaking and listening comprehension. Several recent studies on the need for foreign language skills have shown the importance of the ability of reading comprehension. Later on in life pupils very often find themselves in a communication situation where understanding of a foreign language plays an important part. Since we generally have to understand language which is more difficult than what we are able to produce ourselves, *sufficient emphasis in teaching has to be put on listening and reading comprehension*, however, without neglecting the need to develop pupils' ability to speak the language. In real language use situations the different subareas of language skill often appear together. Thus, e.g., in conversation the pupil has to understand and himself be able to speak the foreign language. This close connection should also be reflected in teaching.

A reading situation is different from a speaking situation. Written text is generally more compact than spoken language. In speech there is often a lot of redundancy but on the other hand some parts of the message are often omitted if they are understood anyway on the basis of the situation and what has been said before. The reader can proceed at his own speed, make use of, e.g., dictionaries or even ask somebody about a strange word, whereas in conversation the listener cannot as easily influence the speakers' tempo, the dialectal quality, clarity, topic, difficulty level, etc., of the speech. His own contribution in this two-way communication situation he can choose from the linguistic repertoire he masters. In some listening situations, such as radio or television broadcasts, the listener cannot influence the speaker at all nor ask clarifying questions (National Board of General Education, 1976, pp. 11-12).

5.3 *Consideration of the Overall Educational Objectives in the Teaching of Foreign Languages*

The teaching of foreign languages can, when carried out in the right way, in many ways promote the realization of the school's general educational objectives. The learning of a new language in addition to the mother tongue increases the individual's possibilities for international contacts and promotes his functional competence even in his own country.

Through appropriate choice of topics language study can increase the pupil's knowledge about other nations, and widen his views, so that he recognizes and appreciates the special features of his own culture and of other cultures. Thus language study increases tolerance and understanding between nations.

Likewise the treatment of different aspects of society and different fields for working life can increase the pupil's understanding of and respect for the work carried out by different members of society.

The aims of social and ethical education can be supported by language teaching by inculcating in the pupils willingness to cooperate and help each other, to accept and appreciate differences between pupils and between achievements, as well as to take responsibility for one's own and others' work. This calls for a positive working climate and favoring of student-centered working methods.

Creativity can be supported in language teaching by developing pupils' spontaneous expression ability in connection with both oral and written production.

Appropriate choice of working methods can promote, e.g., learning of study techniques; memorizing, organizing and recalling of information; learning of concepts; ability to make deductions; assessment of information, and problem solving, which are all included in the aims of cognitive education of the comprehensive school.

From the viewpoint of positive development of the pupil's total personality it is important that language study should help to alleviate anxiety and restlessness. A positive and relaxed study climate and positive learning experiences gained during the studies may have a considerable influence on this. The choice and treatment of topics and language use situations may also be of considerable importance from the viewpoint of supporting the general educational aims (National Board of General Education, 1976, pp. 15-16).

5.3.1 *Basic Objectives for English*

The working party made an attempt to specify the general aims of language teaching on the basis of research-based information on language, language teaching and language learning, so that the basic aims would define the pupil's terminal behavior so clearly that persons making decisions regarding teaching can plan and realize teaching in a sufficiently uniform manner. The following is a verbatim extract from the report of the working party (National Board of General Education, 1976, pp. 17-44).

Grades 3-4

Oral communication (to understand and speak). The aim is that the pupil, within the limits of the basic teaching contents, is able:

- to *recognize* sounds, stress and intonation
- to *understand* simple questions, answers, statements, commands, requests and prohibitions
- to *understand* simple conversations
- to *understand* short and simple "texts" delivered at nearly normal tempo and based totally on familiar linguistic material
- to *repeat* expressions (also songs and rhymes, etc.) in accordance with a spoken model
- to make himself understood when *answering* simple questions and statements, to *react* appropriately to commands, requests and prohibitions, and to himself *make* simple statements, questions, requests, commands, and prohibitions
- to *describe* persons and objects as well as simple situations and events
- to *tell* about oneself, one's immediate environment, and everyday life

The speech that the pupil hears is at first delivered at nearly normal tempo, and later at normal tempo.

From the very beginning good and natural pronunciation, speech rhythm, and intonation is aimed at.

Reading. The aim is that within the limits of the basic teaching contents the pupil is able:

- to *understand* questions, answers and short statements; and
- to *understand* the contents of short texts based entirely on familiar linguistic material.

Writing. The aim is that within the limits of the basic teaching contents the pupil is able:

- to *write* correctly familiar words, phrases, and sentences first according to a model and later without a model; and
- to *write* a short answer to questions presented in writing or orally.

At this stage writing is essentially a form of exercise, which is used primarily to support oral practice.

Grades 5-6

Oral communication (to understand and speak). The aim is that within the limits of the basic teaching contents the pupil is able:

- to *recognize* sounds, stress, and intonation
- to *understand* statements, questions, answers, commands, requests, and prohibitions presented at normal tempo
- to *understand* simple conversations
- to *understand* short, coherent "spoken texts" which in addition to familiar linguistic material may contain some new linguistic material which can easily be understood on the basis of the situation and the context
- to *repeat* fluently what he hears
- to *respond* to statements and questions, to *react* appropriately to commands, requests, and prohibitions, and to himself *make* simple questions, statements, commands, requests, and prohibitions
- to *take part* in simple conversations based on familiar linguistic material
- to *describe* persons, matters, objects, situations, and events
- to *tell* about oneself (e.g., home, family, friends, school, hobbies, likes and dislikes)

The aim in teaching is that the pupil is able to make himself understood in speaking, displaying good pronunciation, stress, speech rhythm and intonation. Pupils are expected to understand more difficult and complex language than they are able to produce themselves.

Reading. The aim is that within the limits of the basic teaching contents the pupil is able:

- to *read* and understand the contents of short texts which are based on familiar linguistic material and which have not been dealt with beforehand; and
- to *read* and understand the main contents of fairly short texts which in addition to familiar linguistic material may contain some new linguistic material which can easily be understood on the basis of the situation and the context.

Gradually the pupils start to practice extensive reading.

Writing. The aim is that within the limits of the basic teaching contents the pupil is able:

- to *write* short replies to questions and inquiries put forward orally/in writing; and
- to *write* short messages first according to a model or instructions, and later on independently.

Writing is used primarily to support oral practice. In addition to this the pupils start to practice guided writing.

Grades 7-9

Oral communication (to understand and speak). The aim is that within the limits of the basic teaching contents the pupil is at the end of the comprehensive school able:

- to *understand* statements, questions, inquiries, answers, directions, commands, requests, prohibitions, and suggestions put forward at normal tempo
- to *understand* conversation delivered at normal tempo which deals with ordinary, everyday matters
- to *understand*, e.g., reports and descriptions of circumstances and events which in addition to familiar linguistic material may contain some (sometimes for *practice* fairly much) unfamiliar linguistic material
- to *reply* to statements, questions, and inquiries, to *react* appropriately to commands, requests, suggestions, and prohibitions, and himself to *make* statements, questions, inquiries, directions, commands, requests, suggestions, and prohibitions
- to *take part* in conversation regarding everyday matters
- to *describe* persons, objects, situations, and events, as well as personal impressions
- to *tell about* events and situations that he has seen in pictures, or read or heard, as well as *talk about* personal observations, experiences, opinions and feelings

In listening comprehension the aim is that the pupil can understand speech delivered at normal tempo which may also contain some pronunciation features differing from the so-called RP English (American English, slight regional accent, a person whose mother tongue is not English).

The aim in teaching is that the pupil can make himself understood in speaking, displaying good pronunciation, stress, speech rhythm and intonation. The pupils are expected to understand more complex and difficult language than they are able to produce themselves.

Reading. The aim is that within the limits of the basic teaching contents the pupil is at the end of the comprehensive school able:

- to *read* and precisely understand the contents of messages regarding directions, appointments, errands to be carried out, etc.;
- to *read* without dictionary and understand the gist of a new text which contains mostly familiar and only little new linguistic material; and
- to *read* (with the help of dictionary, etc.) and understand the gist of a new text which may contain some (sometimes for *practice* even fairly much) new linguistic material.

Writing. The aim is that within the limits of the basic teaching contents the pupil is at the end of the comprehensive school able:

- to *write* an answer to questions and inquiries put forward orally/in writing;
- to *write* a personal message or pass on a received message, e.g., in the form of a short note or letter; and
- to *write* a short report on a situation or event that he has experienced, seen, heard or read about making use of a dictionary and other reference materials.

Writing is still to a great extent practice, which is used to support oral language use. In addition, writing is practiced in situations where the message is normally delivered in writing.

5.3.2 *Basic Teaching Contents*

The starting point for the definition of the basic teaching contents is partly the same as for the extant comprehensive school curriculum, but partly different. The comprehensive school curriculum emphasizes structures whereas the starting point in the choice of the basic teaching contents has been linguistic situations and the communication tasks of the language. Therefore it was worth attempting to map not only basic structures but also basic vocabulary.

The proposal for the basic teaching contents includes the following components: language use situations, topics, vocabulary and structures.

A. *Language use situations*

Since language has been understood mainly as an instrument of communication, the curriculum should express what the pupil is expected to be able to do in various language use situations. "Language use situation" is used in a wide sense to refer to the external setting of verbal communication, the central roles of persons taking part in it, and communicative tasks (functions). The primary aim of foreign language teaching in the comprehensive school is to make it possible for pupils to cope with situations involving the oral and written use of the foreign language and pertaining to personal contacts, various "transactions" in everyday life, and acquisition and transmission of information. Many language use situations have common elements (e.g., greeting, asking, stating, leave-taking).

(1) Inquiring and giving direction, acting as an interpreter

- asking and giving information about a place, address, transportation, etc.;
- asking and telling the time, time of departure, etc.; and
- asking and telling a reason, how to do something or how to behave in order to....

(2) Meeting and visiting

- greeting and leave-taking, and responding to them;
- introducing oneself, introducing others, and responding to introductions;
- asking, thanking and apologizing, as well as replying to them;
- asking and telling about "what's new," chatting, small-talk, expressing polite interest in social interaction;
- congratulating and expressing regret and sympathy, as well as responding to them;
- inviting, accepting and declining an invitation; and
- making an appointment.

(3) Transactions in everyday life (mainly as a client and consumer of services)

Situations connected with traveling:

- inquiries and instructions/directions;
- getting tickets and "checking in";
- getting a taxi, giving an address; and
- understanding announcements, signs, notices, etc.

Situations connected with accommodations and meals:

- booking and "checking in" (hotel, youth hostel, camping site, etc.);
- ordering a meal (cafeteria, restaurant);
- passing and asking others to pass things at the table; and
- paying a bill, asking for clarification.

Situations connected with shops and offices:

- post and bank (getting stamps, exchanging money, getting change, etc.); and
- buying things (expressing wishes as to article, size, color, material, price range, etc.).

Other services:

- tourist information center, information center;
- police;
- ticket offices;
- service stations; and
- doctor, dentist and chemist.

Using the telephone

(4) Situations connected with the acquiring and giving of information:

- telling about oneself (name, age, home, school, everyday chores, leisure-time, interests, spending holidays, plans for the future, etc.) and asking similar questions orally and in writing;
- telling about one's local community and one's country (population, industries, notable places and persons, points of history, etc.) and asking about similar things orally or in writing;
- reading a linguistically simple text;
- reading and writing a letter; and
- getting acquainted with material dealing with the "culture" (in the broadest possible sense) of the linguistic area(s) in question.

The working party also attempted to determine what kind of language pupils could be expected to be able to produce in various central language use situations. Below is given an extract from two language use situation types (National Board of General Education, 1976, pp. 45-46).

1. Inquiring and giving directions, acting as an interpreter

1.1 Asking and giving information about a place, address, transportation, etc.

Excuse me, where is the nearest post office, please?
When does the next train leave to/for York?
How can I get to the Tower (of London), please?

Is this the right bus for Tapiola (please)?
Is this the right platform for the Bakerloo line?
I want to go to the British Museum. Which is the nearest tube station, please?
Do I have to change?
How far is it to Marble Arch?
How long does it take to get/go to Greenwich by bus?

Do you know how to...?
How does it work?
What must I do?

Go straight ahead...
Turn left/right three blocks.
Take a number 87 bus.

Press the (that) button.
Put in a 10p coin and pull the handle.
Turn the handle.
Lift...

Have you got the right time?
What time is it?
What time do you close/open?
How long...last/take?

Take the Central (line) to...
Ten minutes' walk.
400 yards/meters.
You'll see it on your left (right).
You'd better take a taxi.
...and ask again.

I'll draw you a map.

2. Meeting and visiting (an acquaintance/friend and a stranger)

2.1 Greeting and leave-taking

Good morning
Good afternoon
Good evening
Hello
How are you?
I'm fine thank you and you?

Good night
Goodbye
Bye-bye
(I'll) see you tomorrow.
It is (was) a pleasure (nice) to see/meet (seeing/meeting) you
Please remember me to your sister/brother
Give him (her) my regards.
Give my love to...
Best of luck...

2.2 Introducing oneself, introducing others, and responding to introductions

My name is.../I am...from...
This is my friend/sister/Matti...
I'd like you to meet...
Do you know my friend...?

How do you do?
Pleased to meet you.
Nice to meet you.

2.3 Thanking and apologizing

Thank you (very much).
Thanks.
It's very kind/nice of you (to)...
Thank you for a lovely party/evening. I enjoyed...very much.

Not at all/You're welcome.
Excuse me (for...ing)
I'm sorry. I'm very sorry. Sorry.
Pardon?
It doesn't matter. That's all right.

2.4 Asking and telling about "what's new," conversing, chatting, small-talk

How are you today?
How is your family/sister/mother...?
What's new?
How's life?
How are things at home (with Bill, at work)?
How was your trip?
Did you have a nice summer holiday?
How was the weather in your country in the summer?

How was the exam?
Did you get a ticket to (for)...?
Did you get the job?

Please remember me to your sister (brother)...
Give him/her my regards.
Give my love to...

2.5 Expressing agreement, making comments and remarks in conversation

positive response
(Yes), that's right.
That's true.
I agree.

Yes, of course.
Certainly.
I think so too.
Neither do I.

All right. OK.
Good!
That's fine!
That's a good idea.
That's wonderful!
This is very nice/good.

neutral response
Maybe.

Perhaps.
Are you sure?
I'm not (so) sure.

That's possible.

You could be right.

expressing opinion
I think
Fortunately...
I'm afraid...
What a pity!
I hope so.
To tell the truth...
I'm sorry to say that...

negative response
Oh, no.
I don't think so.
That's not true.
That's impossible.
Certainly not.
I don't agree.
Do you really think so?
It's not very nice.
I don't think that's a good idea.
I don't like this/it.
I'm sorry but I can't do it.

phrases expressing polite interest

Really?
I see.
Oh, dear.
Do you mean that?
What happened next/then/after that?
Go on.
Pardon?
Sorry?
Why was that?
Well...
That's interesting.
What did he/she say?

calling attention, changing the subject
By the way, ...
Excuse me, ...
Did you know that...
What about...?
Tell me...
Oh, before I forget, have you...
Right, ...

hesitation, fillers
Err...
Well, ...
I mean...

Why do you think so?
What about...?
Oh, yes.

Now, ...
..., you know.
Well, I don't know.
Anyway, ...
..., you see.

2.6 Congratulating and expressing regret/sympathy

Happy birthday!
Many happy returns!
Congratulations!
Well done.
That is good news.
I'm very happy for you.
Merry Christmas!

What a nice...!
I like your (new)...

I'm (so) sorry that.../I'm (so) glad that...
I was very sorry to hear that/about...
What a pity she can't come.
That's a pity!

Never mind.
It doesn't matter.

Hard luck.

2.7 Making, accepting and declining an invitation

Will you come (to the cinema with me)...?
Would you like to come to a party with me?
How about coming to the cinema with me...?
Let's go for a walk (shall we?)
I hope you can come too.

Thank you.
With pleasure.
That would be very nice. Thank you.
I'd love to. Thank you very much.
That's a good idea.
What a good idea.

No, thank you.
I'm afraid I can't... Thank you for asking/all the same.
No, thanks, I have some work to do.
No, thanks, I have to see someone.

B. *Topics*

The topics consist of matters and contents dealt with in language teaching. Topics and language use situations are connected with each other. Thus certain topics are often dealt with in certain situations and respectively a certain kind of situation may be arranged for the treatment of a certain topic. Topics can be dealt with orally or in writing according to their nature.

In order to attain a real communication skill and a language skill of practical use in general, the linguistic material taught has to be connected with different fields of life, and if possible language practice has to be fitted into everyday situations. The aim of the following list of topics is not to draw a strict line between topics to be dealt with and those to be left out in foreign language teaching in the comprehensive school. Most topics are suitable for treatment at different stages of language study; pupils' age, their interests, and the coordination of language study with the study of other subjects are taken into consideration in the treatment of the topics. The treatment of the topics should widen and deepen the knowledge of the area(s) where the language is spoken, and illustrate the use of the language also outside those areas. The topics should also deal with the pupil's own country to such an extent that the pupil can act correctly in the language use situations mentioned in the first two points in A4 above.

(1) Man

- Man and his body
- Health, illness, hygiene
- Movement, and activities
- Sensory perceptions, feelings and attitudes and thoughts
- Verbal interaction

(2) Everyday life

- Home life and home chores
- Food, meals, etc.
- Clothes and accessories
- Shopping and services
- Traffic, transportation and traveling

(3) Society/community and social life

- Family, relatives and friends
- School and study
- Youth
- Working life
- Mass media
- Social institutions
- Finland in relation to other countries
- Leisure-time and hobbies

(4) Man's environment

- Geography, countries and nations
- Nature, plants and animals
- Time and seasons
- Weather
- Materials, things and their qualities

(5) Units, quantity, order

C. *Vocabulary*

When words and idioms to be taught at the comprehensive school are selected, attention should be paid to their communicative value. The main question is how the words and idioms to be learned will influence the pupil's ability to take part in social interaction. The communication value depends on how the words and idioms can be used in describing "how things are" (events, activities, things, persons, matters, etc.) and in expressing feelings and opinions. In the choice of vocabulary use should be made of information on the frequency and coverage of the words (e.g., frequency studies).

When the amount of vocabulary is considered and pupils' verbal products are evaluated, attention has to be paid to the fact that for successful communication the correct use of vocabulary is often more important than the correct use of grammatical forms. It is not possible to express much with a very limited vocabulary. Without a command of grammatical structures one can express very little, but without words one can express practically nothing.

It is suggested that the basic vocabulary of the first foreign language be 1,000-1,100 words and idioms, and of the second foreign language 800-900 words and idioms. The radio, which does not pay full attention to the great difference in the number of hours, is justified, e.g., by the fact that when pupils start the study of the second foreign language they have gained experience of language study which will help them learn a new language. Furthermore, due to the cognitive development that takes place with age, they can learn languages more effectively than at the lower stage.

In order to support the construction of teaching materials and the planning of teaching, the working group made a proposal for a central vocabulary on the basis of frequency studies. This vocabulary consists of words and idioms which are considered to serve essential communication needs and to be connected with central language use situations. Words have been added to the vocabulary if some central situations and topics have not been sufficiently well represented because of inherent limitations of frequency studies. The lists are guidelines but not binding. Since language changes, the suggested vocabulary also has to be revised from time to time.

The suggested basic vocabulary is only part of the whole vocabulary that can be dealt with at the comprehensive school.

Drawing on all major studies of word frequency and supplementing them by subjective judgment, the working party also prepared a tentative list of basic vocabulary. It was presented by topic (cf. B) in order to make it easier to check the representativeness of the chosen words. Below is an extract from topic B1.

1. Man

1.1 Man and his body

age
arm
baby
body
boy
child
ear
eye
face
fat
finger
foot
girl
hair
hand
head
hear
heart
left
leg
lip
man
mouth
nose
person
right
sex
skin
slim
stomach
throat
tongue
tooth
voice
woman

1.2 Health, illness, hygiene

alive
bath
brush
catch
chemist
cold
comb
dead
dentist
die
doctor
feel
fine
(the) flu
handkerchief
headache
hospital
hurt
ill
life
medicine
nurse
pain
rest
shower
sick
smoke
soap
sore
temperature
toothbrush
towel
wash
well/better

1.3 Moving and activities

be
become
begin
borrow
break
bring
carry
catch
change
choose
close
come
cut
develop
do
fail
fall
fast
find
give
get
go
happen
have
help
hold
hurry
keep
leave
lend
lie
live
look
look for
lose
make
mean
meet
move
open
pass
play
put
save
quick
return
run
set
shut
show
sit
sleep
slow
stand
stay
take
try
turn
use
walk

1.4 Sensory perceptions, feelings, attitudes, thoughts

afraid
agree
angry
bad
beautiful
become
believe
can
careful
chance
cry
dangerous
dear
decide
dream
difficult
easy
enjoy
feel
feeling
fine
foolish
forget
free
fun
funny
glad
good
guess
happy
hate
hear
hope
hurry
hungry
hurt
idea
imagine
important
impossible
interested
interesting
kind
know
laugh
learn
let
like
look
love
lovely
matter
may
mind
must
need
nice
noise
pleasant
please
pleased
pity
possible
pretty
problem
quiet
ready
real
remember
right
sad
see
simple
smell
smile
sorry
sound
special
strong
suitable
sure
surprised
taste
terrible
think
thirsty
tired
trouble
true
truth
typical
understand
useful
want
watch
will
wish
wonder
wonderful
worried
worry
wrong

1.5 Verbal interaction

answer
ask
call
explain
language
listen
mention
message
question
read
say
speak
suggest
talk
tell
thank
word
write

In order to leave pupils enough time to learn the structures and in order that they can get practice also in the understanding of language which is more difficult than what they can produce themselves, new structures can be gradually introduced before they are actually taught and practiced.

The list below states for each structure whether the pupil should understand it or whether he should also be able to use it at the grade level in question. The given examples try to illustrate and show the range of use of the structure.

As regards the first foreign language, the structures are presented for grades 3-4 (shown here), 5-6 and 7-9; as regards the second foreign language (Swedish grades 7-9), no subdivision has been made.

D. *Structures*

The criteria used in the selection of structures consists of both external and internal aspects of the language. The understanding and command of structures should enable the pupil to discuss the suggested topics and to cope with suggested language use situations. In addition to this external criterion, the aim has been to establish systematicity in the teaching of language structure and to grade the structures from simple to more complex ones. Below is an extract from the structure list covering the first two years (grades 3-4).

English (first foreign language)

Grades 3-4

Grammatical "category"	Grammatical "unit"	Notes/examples
	The aim is that on the basis of the instruction given the pupil is able to	
NOUNS	• use the indefinite and definite article in the idioms he has been taught	
	• use without article the mass nouns	also idioms, e.g., at home, at school
	• express quantity using the singular and plural of a noun (-s and -es)	irregular plurals as vocabulary items
	• express ownership using the s-genitive singular	
ADJECTIVES	• use adjectives as predicate complements	
	• understand adjectives as attributes	
ADVERBS	• use the most common adverbs expressing place, time and manner	E.g., away, back, down, here, now, right, there, up, well
NUMERALS	• express quantity using cardinal numbers 1-100	ability to spell numbers; 21-100 need not be evaluated
PRONOUNS	• use the subject forms of personal pronouns and in a preliminary manner also understand the object forms	Primarily me, you, us, e.g., Can you help me/us? I can't hear you. You can help Pekka/Marja. Can you remember it?
	• express ownership using attributive possessive pronouns	
	• use the demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* and understand the demonstrative pronouns *these* and *those*	
	• use the pronouns *what*, *who* and *whose*, as well as the interrogatives *how* and *where* in the formation of interrogative sentences	

Grammatical "category"	Grammatical "unit"	Notes/examples
VERBS	• use the present continuous	
	• use the simple present tense especially in short answers	E.g., Yes, I am/have/can/ must... No, I am not/haven't/can't... (mustn't later)
	• use the auxiliary verbs *can* (can't), *must* with the infinitive	
	• form commands using the basic form of the verb, and prohibitions using the form *don't*	
CONJUNCTIONS	see syntax	
PREPOSITIONS	• use the most common prepositions expressing place (*in*, *on to*, *from*)	
SYNTAX	• form short affirmative declarative (main) clauses and negative clauses without the auxiliary verb *do*	E.g., *Subject-predicate* He is coming. *Subject-predicate-predicate complement* Mary is happy. Rex is a dog. *Subject-predicate-object* I can open the window. I am reading it. *Subject-predicate-adverbial phrase* The book is there. The book is on the table.
	• form short interrogative clauses without the auxiliary verb *do*	
	• form coordinate clauses using the conjunctions *and* and *or*	

6. DEVELOPMENTS IN THE LATE 1970'S: A COURSE-BASED SYLLABUS FOR THE UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL

The most recent instance of syllabus construction (in which the author took part as a member and partly as secretary of the working party) concerns the upper secondary school. What is new in that work is the fact that the syllabus is divided into smaller units called "courses." Each course lasts 38 hours. Objectives and contents are defined for each course separately. The dominant aspect in such syllabus design is the topic of each course. The courses in English are designated by the following titles: (1) Man and his immediate environment (community); (2) Man, his interests and the services he uses; (3) Man and his work; (4) Man and society; (5) Man, science, technology and mass communication; (6) Man, education and culture; (7) Man and nature; (8) Man and the peoples of the world. This general title is followed by a description of the general approach, a description of how the course is related to the overall educational objectives of the upper secondary school, a description of the four language activities (skills) and their relative emphases, a description of subtopics and language use situations, and finally a broad outline of structures. Some suggestions are given concerning teaching methods and the evaluation of learning outcomes.

Since it is difficult to get a good idea of the overall aim of language teaching by reading lengthy course descriptions, the syllabus also gives a general description of the overall aim. It is as follows: "The aim of language teaching in the upper secondary school is to give pupils requisite qualifications for and awaken their interest in acquiring, maintaining and expanding their knowledge of foreign languages in school and after it. The objective is that pupils would have oral and written communication skills in general (i.e., non-vocational) language use situations and for dealing with topics of general (i.e., non-vocational) nature. Achieving such communication skills presupposes that the pupil is familiar with the structure and uses of the language and has knowledge about the way of life and culture in the areas where the language in question is spoken.

"The pupils are expected to be able to understand more difficult language than they produce themselves. This requirement applies, in particular, to reading comprehension, which is an essential prerequisite for further studies and for the ability to keep up with developments in one's later occupation.

"The topics dealt with in language teaching and the teaching-learning process itself must contribute to personality development and support the overall educational aspirations of the upper secondary school" (Government Printing Office, 1982).

In addition to the formal statement of objectives the syllabus also discusses language teaching in relation to lifelong education, the role of the structural elements of language in language teaching, the role of communication skills and the significance of knowing basic features of the cultural background of the language area.

The syllabus also outlines the criteria for the selection of teaching contents: structures, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, language use situations (=functions) and topics.

Course 1 will be presented in the following in order to give a better idea of course-based description of language teaching objectives.

Course 1: Man and Community

Perspective

During the first course the focus is on topics related to the neighborhood/community, on typical language use situations associated with the general setting and on typical language found in the settings and situations. Special emphasis is devoted to language use situations associated with personal contacts. A characteristic feature of such contacts is that language is informal. Language use situations presuppose mainly listening comprehension and speaking, to some extent also reading and writing.

In personal contacts are reflected the customs and attitudes of different cultures, of different social strata and of different generations. It is recommended that topics and situations should be dealt with from the point of view of young people.

During the first course it is recommended that pupils' knowledge of central structures is diagnosed and, if needed, reviewed.

Pupils should also be given guidance in the study techniques and skills of the new school.

Contents

Topics: home and family, relatives, friends, human relations, generation gap, daily chores, leisure activities, pastime

Language use situations: Contacts with family, relatives, friends, acquaintances, work mates, etc., involving, e.g.,

- greetings, leave-taking (different registers)
- introducing oneself, introducing others, and appropriate responding
- talking about daily life (starting, maintaining discussion, conversational rituals)
- requesting, asking, persuading, ordering, forbidding (appropriate registers)
- reporting and narrating on everyday events and experiences
- expressing thanks, felicitation, invitation, apology, etc., orally and in writing (appropriate registers)
- writing cards, notes, messages and letters

Structures: review of tenses

Objectives

In relation to *general educational objectives*: the first course should aim, in particular, to develop a positive attitude towards studying.

Language learning objectives: The aim is that at the end of the course the student

- is able to master the basic reviewed structures in order to be able to cope with subsequent courses
- is able to understand spoken language related to the topics and situations included in the course
- is able to use the language orally in situations dealt with and in similar situations
- is able to understand written texts related to the topics and situations dealt with in the course
- is able to write messages related to the included topics and situations

Relative emphasis of skills: Particular emphasis is devoted to the mastery of basic structures, to listening comprehension and speaking.

Teaching arrangements

Most of the topics and situations are familiar to students since similar matters have been dealt with in the comprehensive school. It is recommended that the approach now is such that problems related to the topics and language use situations are given more emphasis so as to stimulate discussion in class. Oral and written "texts" should also have a "literary" component.

Working methods should be adapted to the emphasis of the course: structure review and intensive development of listening comprehension and speaking. These two skills can best be developed using pupil-centered methods (work in pairs, small group activities, etc.).

Evaluation

After entry diagnosis student progress can be followed with formative "tests." At the end of the course there will be a test consisting of a test of central structures and of a listening comprehension test plus appropriate responding to what was heard.

The course-based syllabus draft was tried out in a number of schools, revised and officially approved for school use starting with the school year 1982-83.

7. REVISION OF THE COMMON CORE SYLLABUS

A working party consisting largely of the same persons involved in the preparation of the draft common core syllabus (1976) for the comprehensive school was set up in May 1980. Its task is to revise the common core syllabus and prepare a didactic manual to help teachers in its use. The deadline for the proposal concerning the first four years (grades 3-6) was the end of 1980 and that for the last three years (grades 7-9) and the didactic manual was the end of 1981.

The work of the group consisted mainly of minor revisions and minor additions. It is intended to present the objectives and contents in a new way following the idea of "facet analysis" developed by Guttman (1970). Facets are dimensions of a domain or situation which are considered to be relevant for analyzing and measuring it. Facet analysis is, therefore, a kind of a priori factor analysis. Facets are often linked semantically in a "mapping sentence" (Millman, 1974). This has been done in the following figure, which represents the new, officially approved (1981) goal definition for FL teaching in the comprehensive school.

The new system is basically only a new way of stating the objectives and contents already found in the 1976 draft. This more systematic approach will, however, make it possible to check the representativeness and consistency of objectives and contents. One of the benefits of the facet analysis/mapping sentence approach to syllabus construction is that it is possible to avoid the

(1) LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS

The aim is that the student can understand, respond to and produce language in oral and written discourse for the following purposes:

SOCIAL INTERACTION
- addressing persons
- greeting, taking leave
- presenting oneself
- thanking
- apologizing
- complimenting
- making an offer
- making an invitation
- conversational gambits

DIRECTING ACTIVITY
- ordering, exhorting
- forbidding
- warning
- requesting
- advising
- suggesting
- persuading

EXPRESSING OPINIONS, ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS
- like/dislike
- agreement/disagreement
- pleasure/displeasure
- approval/disapproval
- surprise
- sympathy
- wish/persuasion
- intent/purpose
- certainty/uncertainty
- necessity

IMPARTING AND SEEKING INFORMATION
- labeling, categorizing
- asking and answering
- stating something
- correcting statements
- describing and reporting

(2) LANGUAGE SKILLS

The following communication skills are practiced:

ORAL COMMUNICATION
Listening Comprehension:
the student can
- understand short expressions (by appropriate responding)
- understand simple conversations
- understand complete discourses spoken at almost normal tempo and based entirely on familiar language structures and vocabulary
- understand complete discourses that may contain also some unfamiliar structures and vocabulary which can easily be inferred from the context

Speaking:
the student can
- produce expressions needed in oral communication
- take part in simple conversations
- produce short complete discourses

WRITTEN COMMUNICATION
Reading Comprehension:
the student can
- understand written expressions and respond to them
- understand short texts with familiar structures and vocabulary
- understand the gist in new short text containing familiar structures and vocabulary
- understand the gist in texts which may contain also some unfamiliar structures and vocabulary, which can easily be inferred from the context

Writing:
the student can
- write short messages in accordance with a model or instructions
- write short answers to written or oral questions
- write short messages independently
- write descriptions, reports and stories according to prompts and independently

(3) TOPICS AND NOTIONS

The following topics and notions are dealt with:

PEOPLE AND THEIR IMMEDIATE ENVIRONMENTS:
- self
- family, relatives, friends
- other people
- home, everyday tasks and chores
- food and eating
- clothes and accessories
- parts of the body, health, illness, hygiene
- perceptions and feelings
- thinking

ACTIVITIES
- being and possessing
- doing things
- moving about
- school and study
- world of work and occupations
- leisure time and hobbies/interests
- shopping, running errands
- traffic and travelling
- mass media

NATURE, COUNTRIES AND PEOPLES
- nature and weather
- country and town
- Finland and the Finns
- English-speaking countries and peoples
- other countries and peoples

QUANTITY AND QUALITY
- number and quality
- age
- money and price
- attributes: color, size, shape, quality

TIME
- point of time and contemporaneousness
- present time
- the past
- the future
- frequency
- duration

PLACE AND MANNER
- location and direction
- method, means, instrument

RELATIONS
- qualitative relations (comparisons)
- temporal, spatial and referential relations (time: now-then; place: here-there; reference to persons and things: pronouns)
- order and dates
- quantitative relations
- cause, effect, condition
- combination, discrimination
- definiteness: indefinite/definite

danger of fragmentation, which is easily the case with long, separate lists like the ones in the Threshold Level and Mumby's (1978) Communicative Syllabus Design. The fact that several projects in various parts of the world ("General aims of education" (OM) in Sweden, the mastery learning project in Finland, etc.) had come up with detailed lists of minute objectives acted as a warning, because it was immediately obvious that no one could possibly cope with such lists in teaching. Human information processing capacity is too limited for that in spite of chunking.

The system adopted in the new Finnish comprehensive school curriculum makes it possible to have an easy overview of the objectives and contents of teaching. They can be broken down into a more detailed description but the total picture is not lost due to overwhelming details.

8. DISCUSSION

In Finland the study of foreign languages by all students at all levels of the educational system is now accepted as a necessity. There is, however, continuous debate about the number of hours to be allocated to the study of foreign languages. In the opinion of the present author the foreign language teaching profession can successfully withstand pressures to cut the share of language learning only if it can continuously show that language teaching is necessary, justified, and productive.

The Finnish school system is relatively highly centralized. All schools follow the national syllabus and all schools have the same timetable, in which the number of lessons for each subject is prescribed year by year. All textbooks have to be in harmony with the syllabuses in order to be accepted for school use and to get state subsidy. For obvious reasons, therefore, the national syllabus is a very important instrument of guidance and control in Finland. That explains, at least in part, why so much effort is taken in Finland in constructing syllabuses.

In the 1970's a close link was established between the national Institute for Educational Research and the national educational authorities. Researchers at the Institute participated first in the evaluation of old syllabuses and then also in the construction of new syllabuses. This close cooperation made it possible to carry out systematic research and development work on problems related to FL syllabus construction. Some general principles were followed in this work: (a) principle of effective utilization of research-based knowledge, and use of scientific criteria in syllabus construction; (b) principle of explicit linkage with national educational policy: foreign language teaching must support general educational aspirations in ways that are natural to it; (c) principle of hierarchical syllabus construction: all parties involved in FL teaching participate in the definition of objectives (national syllabus is interpreted and adapted by schools and by individual teachers); (d) principle of realism: objectives and contents must be learnable given the time and other resources available for teachers; (e) principle of humanization of language teaching and learning: language teaching must be carried out so that it supports the overall educational objectives of the school without undue attention only to its utilitarian value. Language teaching must be humane and educative at the same time as it seeks to be effective.

Foreign language syllabus construction in the 1970's thus became more institutionalized, more systematic, and more explicit. It was possible to utilize our own extensive experience over the years and it was possible to take advantage of interesting work done in other countries. The present author usually wrote lengthy reviews of research and developmental work done in other countries and reviewed syllabi obtained from other countries. The active role of the Finnish Association of Applied Linguistics (annual summer school of linguistics with distinguished lecturers from all over the world and its rapidly growing series of reviews of applied linguistics in Finnish) was of great importance. Another important source of influence were the annual Council of Europe symposia, in which topical questions were discussed, and the documents made available by the Strasbourg headquarters. It is impossible to overestimate the pivotal role played by the Council of Europe in promoting foreign language teaching in Europe. The work has been of high theoretical and practical value.

In spite of its great merit, the role of the Council of Europe Threshold Level syllabus in Finland has, however, been limited to that of a concretization of one possible syllabus approach. There are several reasons why it could not be taken over as such, even when it was also adapted to the school situation. First, foreign language teaching is part of the entire educational system and the orientation of foreign language syllabuses has to take into account the overall educational policy. Thus, language teaching cannot be seen as a purely technical area, which is free of educational overtones and value choices. The objectives and contents of language teaching have to be formulated on the basis of national needs and perceptions. For instance, it was considered important in Finland that students ought to be able to talk also about their own country and about their own neighborhood. This cannot easily be accommodated in an international scheme. Another reason is that there must be a careful articulation between all levels of language teaching in a given country. It is difficult to see how a syllabus constructed elsewhere could take into account all levels of language teaching in a number of countries. A third reason is the fact that language teaching has to build on national traditions in order to ensure orderly progress and to avoid abrupt pendulum swings. New ideas from abroad have to be filtered through a national "sieve" in order to be optimally relevant and useful. A fourth reason, partly related to the third point, is the nature of the native language. Although contrastive analysis is by no means the sole criterion of what structures to teach and in what order, it is still believed to be a very important determinant, in spite of everything that some experts have written about the inadequacies of contrastive and error analysis. Their arguments have never appeared very convincing to teachers and researchers in Finland. A fifth point is the fact that the Threshold Level largely neglects the role of the systematic vocabulary building and the teaching of basic principles of word formation (derivation, compound words). It is considered very important in Finland not only to teach systematically the grammatical structure of a language but also to teach the basic principles of word formation, because in this way the students' vocabulary can easily be tripled or quadrupled. A sixth reason was the fact that the Threshold Level was so long, with many separate long lists of what to teach. Earlier experience with such detailed exemplifications of behavioral objectives in Sweden and Finland and some other countries had led to a very skeptical attitude about the usefulness of such an approach in practical teaching. In the VIKKE syllabus, therefore, an attempt was made to combine the situational component with the notional component, but this was not entirely successful. It was only after the discovery of the facet analysis that we believed to have found a way which seemed to be a practicable method of constructing an overview of objectives and contents, which also showed the logic of the system without self-defeating detail.

The systematic work on syllabus construction in Finland was complemented by a national commission, which in 1976-1978 defined the general principles of language teaching policy in Finland. In many ways, its work resembles the work done by the U.S. President's Commission (which was not known to the Finnish Commission in spite of its active search for information), but its proposals are more specific than the U.S. proposals on many counts. It is expected that this policy statement will form the basis for all syllabus construction work in the next few decades.

REFERENCES

Allen, J.P.B., and S.P. Corder, eds., 1973-1977, *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics*, Vols. 1-4. London: Oxford University Press.

Austin, J.L., 1962, *How to do Things with Words*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

Bausch, K.-H., 1971, *Vorschlag zu einer Typik der gesprochenen Sprache: Forschungen zur gesprochenen Sprache und Möglichkeiten ihrer Didaktisierung*. Müchen: Werkstattgespräche, Goethe-Institut.

Belyayev, B.V., 1963, *The Psychology of Teaching Foreign Languages*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Beneš, E., 1967, "Konversationstypen und Erziehung zum freien Sprechen," *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* 2:102-107.

Brinkmann, H., 1967, "Die Syntax der Rede," in *Sprache der Gegenwart 1*, Satz und Wort im heutigen Deutsch Jahrbuch d. Inst. f. Dt. Sprache 1965/66. Düsseldorf: Schwann, 74-94.

Britton, J., 1971, "What's the Use?: A Schematic Account of Language Functions," *Educational Review* 23(3):205-219.

Carroll, J.B., 1968, "The Psychology of Foreign Language Testing," in Davies, A., ed., *Language Testing Symposium: A Psycholinguistic Approach*. London: Oxford University Press.

Carroll, J.B., P. Davies, and B. Richman, 1971, *Word Frequency Book*. New York: Houghton Mifflin and American Heritage Publishing Co.

Candlin, C.C., J. Leather, and C. Bruton, 1974, English Language Skills for Overseas Doctors and Medical Staff, Reports 1-4, University of Lancaster. Mimeograph.

Cazden, C.B., 1972, "The Situation: A Neglected Source of Social Class Differences in Language Use," in Pride, J.P., and J. Holmes, eds., *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

Coulthard, M., 1969, "A Discussion of Restricted and Elaborated Codes," *Educational Review* 22(1):38-50.

Doughty, P., 1974, *Language, 'English' and the Curriculum.* London: Edward Arnold.

Doughty, P., J. Pearce, and G. Thornton, 1972, *Exploring Language: Schools Council Programme in Linguistics and English Teaching.* London: Edward Arnold.

Edelhoff, C., 1974, Differenzierung im Englischunterricht der Sekundarstufe I: Ziele, Verfahren, Modelle und Erfahrungen. Mimeograph.

Freihoff, R., and S. Takala, 1974, Kielenkäyttötilanteiden erittelyyn perustuva kielenopetuksen tavoitekuvausjärjestelmä. Reports from the Language Center, University of Jyväskylä, Report No. 2. (Abridged version: A Systematic Description of Language Teaching Objectives Based on the Specification of Language Use Situations, Report No. 3.)

Frey, K., 1971, "Die Taxonomien und das Curriculum," *Paedagogica Europea.* Europäisches Jahrbuch für pädagogische Forschung 1970/1971, Band VI, 50-72.

Gagné, R.M., 1965, "The Analysis of Instructional Objectives for the Design of Instruction," in Glaser, R., ed., *Teaching Machines and Programmed Learning.* Vol. 2. Data and Directions. Washington, D.C.: National Educational Association.

Gorosch, M., 1970, *Goal-oriented Modern Language Teaching.* Copenhagen: Copenhagen School of Economics and Business Admistration I.

Government Printing Office, 1982, *Upper Secondary School Syllabus.* Helsinki, Finland: Government Printing Office.

Grice, H.P., 1971, "Utterer's Meaning, Sentence Meaning and Word Meaning," in Searle, J.R., ed., *The Philosophy of Language.* London: Oxford University Press, 54-70.

_____, 1975, "Logic and Conversation," in Cole, P., and J.L. Morgan, eds., *Syntax and Semantics.* Vol. 3. New York: Academic Press, 41-58.

Halliday, M.A.K., 1969, "Relevant Models of Language," *Educational Review* 22(1): 26-37.

_____, 1973, *Explorations in the Functions of Language.* London: Edward Arnold.

_____, 1974, *Language and Social Man.* London: Longman.

_____, 1975, *Learning How to Mean: Explorations in the Development of Language.* London: Edward Arnold.

_____, 1978, *Language as Social Semiotic: The Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning.* London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K., A. MacIntosh, and P. Strevens, 1964, *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. London: Longman.

Hellmich, H., 1967, "Funktion und Situation als Grundlage für die Entwicklung von Sprechfähigkeiten," *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* 2:92-102.

Jakobovits, L.A., 1970, *Foreign Language Learning: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of the Issues*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Jakobovits, L.A., and B. Gordon, 1974, *The Context of Foreign Language Teaching*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Klingberg, G., 1974, Undersvisningsmålen för ämnet engelska i lgr 69. En måldokumentanalys. Lärarhögskolan i Göteborg: Pedagogiska Institutionen, Report No. 54. (Goals of English Teaching in the Comprehensive School Curriculum 1969.)

Kučera, H., and W.N. Francis, 1967, *Computational Analysis of Present-day American English*. Providence: Brown University Press.

Labov, W., 1970, "The Study of Language in Social Context," *Studium Generale* 23.

Lado, R., 1957, *Linguistics Across Cultures*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press.

Leech, G., and J. Svartvik, 1975, *A Communicative Grammar of English*. London: Longman.

Lenneberg, E.H., 1967, *Biological Foundations of Language*. New York: Wiley.

Leontev, A.A., 1973, "Some Problems in Learning Russian as a Foreign Language," *Soviet Psychology* XI(4):1-117.

_____, 1977, "Some New Trends in Soviet Psycholinguistics, *Soviet Psychology* XV(2):15-25.

Lindell, E., 1972, *Mål i språk*. Lund: CWK Gleerups. (Goals in Language Teaching.)

Lozanov, G., ed., 1973, *Problems of Suggestology*. Sofia: Ministry of Education.

_____, 1978, *Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy*. New York: Gordon and Breach.

Mackey, W.F., 1965, *Language Teaching Analysis*. London: Longman.

Mager, R.F., 1962, *Preparing Instructional Objectives*. Palo Alto: Fearon.

Miller, G.A., 1970, *The Psychology of Communication*. London: Penguin Books.

Miller, G.A., E.H. Galanter, and K.H. Pribram, 1960, *Plans and the Structure of Behaviour*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Munby, J., 1978, *Communicative Syllabus Design*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

MUT/Mål och utvärdering i grandskolan och gymnasiet. Swedish National Board of Education: PM 1973-11-19. (Goals and Evaluation in the Comprehensive School and the Upper Secondary School.)

National Board of General Education, 1976, "Proposal for Common Core Syllabus in English and Swedish." Helsinki, Finland: National Board of General Education.

Nickel, G., 1970, Einleitung zum PAKS - Arbeitsbericht Nr. 5 A (Grundsätzliches zur Fehleranalyse, B) Zum Problem der Fehlerbewertung. Inst. f. Lit. u. Sprachwiss. Universität Stuttgart.

Piepho, H.-E., 1972, Linguistische Kriterien eines kommunikativen und situationbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterrichts. Beiträge zu den Sommerkursen. Goethe-Institut. München.

Richterich, R., 1972, A Model for the Definition of Language Needs of Adults Learning a Modern Language. Council of Europe. Committee for Out-of-School Education and Cultural Development, CCC/EES (72) 49.

Rossipal, H., 1970, "Två utkast," in Kirri, A., ed., *Nordisk sommaruniversität*. Kobenhavn: Språkinlärningsprosessen, Studiekrets 3:16-26. (Two sketches of Language Objectives: Nordic Summer University Bulletin.)

Saari, H., and S. Takala, 1980, "English as a Foreign Language in Finland," *Studies in International Evaluation* 6:47-52.

Schröder, K., 1973, Prinzipien und Elemente des Sprachunterrichts in der Sekundarstufe II. Geschäftstelle des Deutschen Bildungsrates. Bonn-Bad Godesberg.

Schuling, H., 1967, *Denkstil*. Beschreibung und Deutung der Denkformen. Ratingen/Düsseldorf: Henn.

Searle, J.R., 1969, *Speech Acts*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sinclair, J.McH., and R.M. Coulthard, 1975, *Toward an Analysis of Discourse*. London: Oxford University Press.

Steger, H., 1967, *Soziolinguistik: Grundlagen, Aufgaben und Ergebnisse für das Deutsche*. Sprache der Gegenwart 13, Sprache und Gesellschaft. Jahrbuch des IDS. Düsseldorf: Schwann.

Stern, H.H., 1967, *Foreign Languages in the Primary School*. London: Oxford University Press.

Stern, H.H., 1969, *Languages and the Young School Child.* London: Oxford University Press.

_____, 1974, "Directions in Language Teaching Theory and Research," in Qvistgaard, J., H. Schwartz, and H. Spang-Hansen, eds., AILA Third Congress Proceedings. Vol. III: *Applied Linguistics.* Heidelberg: Julius Gross Verlag.

Stevick, E.W., 1976, *Memory, Meaning and Method.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Strevens, P., 1977, *New Orientations in the Teaching of English.* London: Oxford University Press.

Takala, S., and H. Saari, 1979, Englannin kielen opetus ja koulusaavutukset Suomessa 1970-luvun alussa. Reports from the Institute for Educational Research No. 295. University of Jyväskylä. (The Teaching of English in Finland at the Beginning of the 1970's: A Comparative and Descriptive Study Based on the IEA Data.)

Trim, J.L.M., 1971, Towards a Situational Definition of Language Contents in Foreign Languages. A Schematic Inventory of Language Roles, Activities and Uses. Council of Europe, CCC/EES (71) 135, Modern Language Learning in Adult Education.

_____, 1978, Some Possible Lines of Development of an Overall Structure for a European Unit/Credit Scheme for Foreign Language Learning by Adults. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

TRUAS/Läromedelskonstruktion. TRU Rapport Nr. 7, 1971. (Construction of Teaching Materials. Swedish National Committee for TV and Radio in Instruction.)

Tyler, R.W., 1950, *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction.* Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Ure, J.N., 1969, Practical Registers, (A) Situations: Language in Action. ELT 23(2):107-114, (B) Collecting, Describing, Teaching. ELT 23(3):206-215.

Valette, R., and R.S. Disick, 1972, *Modern Language Performance Objectives and Individualisation.* A Handbook. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich.

van Ek, J.A., 1972, Proposal for the Definition of a Threshold-Level in Foreign Language Learning by Adults. Council of Europe, CCC/EES (72) 22.

van Passel, F., 1974, Defense of Foreign Language Teaching in Secondary Schools. AIMAV Information Bulletin No. 8.

Westphalen, K., 1973, *Praxisnahe Curriculumentwicklung: Eine Einführung in die Curriculumreform am Beispiel Bayerns.* Sonauwörth: Verlag Ludwig Auer.

Widdowson, H.G., 1973, "Directions in the Teaching of Discourse," in Corder, S.P., and E. Roulet, eds., *Theoretical Linguistic Models in Applied Linguistics.* Paris: AIMAV/Didier.

Wilkins, D.A., 1971, *The Feasibility of a Situational Organization of Language Teaching*. Council of Europe, CCC/EES (71) 135.

_____, 1972, "Grammatical, Situational and Notional Syllabuses." Paper delivered to the Third International Congress of Applied Linguistics, Copenhagen.

Wilkinson, A., 1968, "The Testing of Oracy," in Davies, A., ed., *Language Testing Symposium*. London: Oxford University Press, 117-132.

Wilkinson, A., and L. Stratta, 1969, "The Evaluation of Spoken Language," *Educational Review* 21(3):183-195.

Wunderlich, D., 1969, "Unterrichten als Dialog," *Sprache im technischen Zeitalter* 32:263-287.

_____, 1970, "Die Rolle der Pragmatik in der Linguistik," *Deutschunterricht* 4:5-41.

_____, 1972, "Sprechakte," in Mass, U., and D. Wunderlich, eds., *Pragmatik und sprachliches Handeln*. Frankfurt: Anthenäum.

THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

DONALD W. CRUICKSHANK
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois

Studies in Language Learning (1982), 4, 98-119.

0. ESP DEFINED

There is probably no facet of language teaching around the world today that is growing faster than English for Special Purposes (ESP). There has been a pronounced shift away from Standard English as a Foreign Language (EFL) type courses to ESP-based syllabuses, primarily in overseas programs, during the last seven or eight years. As evidence of this numerous texts are now regularly appearing on the world-wide book market that deal with a large number of different professional areas that English language teaching is now involved with. It is well within the realm of possibility that in the near future the vast majority of overseas English programs will be involved with some type of ESP. True, there will always be foreign colleges and universities that will want to teach English as a Foreign Language, much like French, German, Arabic, etc., are taught in this country, i.e., as part of a general humanities curriculum, however because of the tremendous proliferation of science and technology in English during the post-World War II years the need for ESP programs will be paramount in this field.

The science and technology that has become widespread during the last thirty years is largely a product of American scientific effort and genius. For the most part the spread of this technology has taken place through the medium of English, because it has been either by the American government or through a multitude of American corporations that it has been disseminated throughout the free world. Yet even though this is the case, ESP teaching has for the most part been a province of the British teaching community, with little input until this decade by American English teaching specialists. Among the many reasons for this anomaly are: (1) that many Third World nations do not want American involvement in their educational systems because of a fear (whether unfounded or not) of U.S. cultural imperialism; (2) that the American EFL/ESL community is a rather young entity within our educational establishment, in fact the national Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages organization is only twelve years old. (3) In England there has been a longer tradition of viewing language as it is used situationally because of the prevalence of Firth's Context of Situation model being one of the guiding theories of British general linguistics. It has only been during the last eight or ten years that American scholars and practitioners have been able to both theoretically and practically get into ESP work because of the rise of the learner-centered cognitive code theory, and also because of the increasing theoretical importance of the influence of sociolinguistics upon L2 teaching. (4) Finally, the British, through the many English teaching branches of the British Council, were in a better position to take advantage of local overseas ESP needs as they arose because they were "on the spot" long before the American bi-national centers were, and unlike our bi-national centers, the British Council's branches in the Third World have shown little reluctance to become involved in ESP work.

The situation just described is generally the case today, but it is very pleasing to note that changes are taking place. TESOL is now becoming more aware of the importance of ESP, and there is a move underway to establish a special interest group within its ranks to deal specifically with this area. Evidence of this growing interest was seen in the 1978 TESOL convention in Mexico City where a number of papers on ESP were given. The International Communications Agency of the U.S. government, which sponsors bi-national centers for English teaching abroad, is also taking an interest in ESP. This can be seen in its sponsorship, along with the Ford Foundation and the Center for Applied Linguistics, of summer workshops in ESP in North Africa in 1977, and in other areas of the world as well.

This growing American interest in ESP around the world can be seen in Saudi Arabia where American ESP programs are probably in the majority in both university education and in industry-related programs. Until very recently most private sector ESP programs in Iran had been staffed and operated by Americans. The huge helicopter school program, sponsored by Bell Helicopter of Texas, is a good example of this. In university education there have been two major ESP efforts in Iran, one by the University of Illinois at Tehran University, and another by the British Council at Tabriz University. So it appears that in at least one Middle Eastern country ESP has been divided between British and American specialists.

In Southeast and East Asia the ESP field seems to still be dominated by the British primarily because of the work of the Regional English Language Centre (RELC) in Singapore which is heavily dominated by British mentality and methodology. In recent years, however, American input has been actively sought by RELC, resulting in a number of American papers being delivered at the annual RELC seminars, and in the employment of visiting American scholars such as Edward Anthony (former president of TESOL) at the centre.

Latin America is heavily influenced by the British in the area of ESP, notably in Mexico and in Chile. It is curious to note here that while British linguistics has sought to view other varieties of English, such as Indian or African English, as legitimate expressions of the English language, they have done little to try to eliminate the old notion, still prevalent in Latin America and other areas, that RP speech (i.e., Received Pronunciation, or the British Standard), has more prestige and is more desirable than standard American English. This omission by the British is at least partially understandable when one realizes the importance of the large investment in terms of time, manpower, and money that they have so far put into EFL and ESP programs around the world.

Now that we have established what the general trends are that have given rise to ESP, we will do well to look at what the educational manifestations are, in terms of program types, that this movement has created within the English language teaching community.

Two recent articles by Peter Strevens, the British applied linguist, go to great lengths in describing the various components of this rapidly growing field of ESP (Strevens 1977a and 1977b). Strevens points out that in recent years there has been a pronounced movement toward student/learner-centered instruction and away from teacher and specific text centered programs. He claims that this general movement in foreign language education has led both theoreticians and methodologists to look toward the individualization and specialization of course content in the English teaching field. Instruction based on these forms demands that teaching should be designed to adequately deal with the exact needs of the learner. He claims that it is this new type of learner-centered orientation in ESL, combined with the expressed needs of people around the world, that have provided the initial basis for ESP programs (Strevens, 1977b).

As we shall now see, ESP courses can be divided into a number of different types depending upon the needs of the learners involved. "Broadly defined, ESP courses are those in which the aims and the content are determined, principally or wholly, not by criteria of general education (as when 'English' is a foreign language subject in school), but by functional and practical English language needs of the learner" (Strevens, 1977a). Within this wide definition, we can fit courses for businessmen, lawyers, doctors, various scientists, air traffic controllers, even educators. In other words, there could be ESP courses designed for just about any profession or trade that requires such instruction.

An early distinction which many writers, including Strevens, make at this point is that between general ESP, as defined above, and English for Science and Technology (EST), there is a necessity to incorporate within EST coursework a greater content of what might loosely be defined as scientific English. Among the qualities that characterize scientific English, there are some which set it aside as a very special case. First of all, ways of quantifying things are very specialized, and the formulae and symbols of science in English almost constitute a separate language themselves. Strevens points out that scientific English also employs a large body of discourse that relies heavily on the use of Latin and Greek roots and affixes. In the area of vocabulary, each specific course in EST is going to have a course specific lexis determined by the particular area of science or technology. Along with this, Cowan has pointed out that on another level of vocabulary EST is characterized by a common core of what might be called "subtechnical vocabulary" that appears in many EST curricula and is not subject specific (Cowan, 1974). For example, carcinogenic, cardiac arrest, pulmonary artery, orthopedics, etc., would be included in an EST course for doctors or medical students, but not for computer scientists. On the other hand, words like function, operation, isolate, supposition, formula, etc., are part of a body of lexis that is common to both Medicine and Computer Science. This common lexis is what is meant by subtechnical vocabulary. This work by Cowan on lexis and structure in EST will be reviewed later on in this paper. Another of the qualities of scientific and technological discourse in English that will also be treated later is the special rhetorical structure of scientific English. During the rest of this paper, ESP and EST may be used interchangeably, unless exactness dictates using one instead of the other. As pointed out already, however, EST is a major component (if not the major component) of the overall ESP picture.

In general ESP courses are divided between occupational and educational courses. Occupational ESP is job related and can be of a highly technical nature or it can be rather simple in nature. For example, English for airline stewardesses, weathermen, laboratory technicians, etc., are all occupational ESP. Strevens gives three different orientations to occupational ESP. First of all, he says that there are courses based on "pre-experience" where the learners are already familiar with a job and where they are adding a relevant knowledge of English to their already existing job skills. Secondly, he defines what he calls "post-experience" based courses. In these courses the learners are learning the requisite English for their job at the same time that they are learning the job itself. Finally, the third occupationally-based ESP type course that he talks about is teacher conversion, or retraining courses.

Because of a very serious need for ESP teachers Strevens says that courses such as these are needed to take present standard ESL teachers, and other foreign language teachers as well, and "convert" them into ESP teachers with a general knowledge of science, technology, etc., worked into an ESP teacher-training format (Strevens, 1977a). Aside from teacher conversion programs, most of these occupational ESP programs would probably be business- or industry-based courses.

Educational ESP varies greatly according to the educational aims of the institution in which a program is offered, and also as a result of the framework and levels of education within which courses are offered. As opposed to regular university level EFL courses Strevens calls this "English for academic purposes," which is related to the study of a particular discipline such as chemistry, earthquake engineering, math, etc. This "discipline-based" approach is greatly affected by two questions: first, have the students already completed their study of the discipline, or are they learning English as a part of their study? Strevens labels the first type "pre-study" and the second type as "in-study." He then makes a very interesting point about how to approach these types of courses in a general way when foreign students come to an English-speaking country (in this book *England*), "One very numerous body of overseas students in Britain, often referred to as 'pre-technical' students consists of those who are learning English specifically in order to gain admission to a course in science or technology: for such students ESP needs to include a major component of study skills" (Strevens, 1977a). These study skills would, of course, complement the discipline-based ESP materials and would hopefully show the student what to do with the English he learns in his present or future academic environment. Adoption of suggestions such as this would radically alter the approach to English that we have for foreign students in the U.S., where most intensive English language programs still follow audio-lingual guidelines, and in general avoid discipline-based approaches to the training of either incoming or already enrolled foreign students. Perhaps colleges of Engineering, Agriculture, Medicine, etc., on major campuses should consider discipline-based courses for their foreign students. Another approach to solving this problem here could be by placing intensive English students in classes not only by the amount of English they know, but also according to their fields of study as well. It seems that either of these approaches would better serve the students than what is done now.

The second distinction to make within educational ESP is that of school subject ESP. This seems to fit into what would be equivalent to a junior/senior high school curriculum in this country. In the country where ESP is a school subject Strevens distinguishes between independent and integrated courses. The independent courses are where English is offered as English as a foreign language, but where the EFL course is taught in say a geography or general science framework (i.e., a good deal of the grammatical work, the reading passages, and attendant exercises are placed in the framework of a discipline). The integrated program is where English is combined with Math, General Science, and other courses in one integrated syllabus. Here these particular courses are integrated with English to such an extent that after the elementary level the courses are actually taught in English for the rest of the learner's time at that school. A good example of this is a system of government operated, but tuition supported, special secondary schools in

Turkey where, from the seventh through the twelfth grades, English, Math, and the sciences are all presented in an integrated English curriculum.

Having developed the concept of ESP, and the typology of programs within the field, we turn now to a discussion of how ESP programs are established and implemented. Cowan (1977) sees four elements required for this: (1) needs assessment, (2) materials development, (3) teacher preparation, and (4) evaluation. Now it can probably be argued that these steps should be part of the establishment of any well thought out educational program. So what is so special about using them specifically for ESP programs? Perhaps the most compelling reason for this is the previously mentioned fact that ESP is a fairly new, rapidly growing branch of the ESL profession, and it is now that these types of sensible guidelines have to be established. If one follows the ideas of Strevens stated above, and the theory of functional language use that underlies such ESP pedagogical frameworks as Wilkins' *Notional Syllabuses*, then needs assessment is crucial for the beginning of any ESP program. It is in this stage of program development that both institutional and learner needs can be identified. I am sure that it must be obvious that in learner centered instruction this is an indispensable first step. This needs assessment provides the basis for the next component, materials development. It is in this stage that the coursework is developed to meet the assessed needs. This component is also very important to ESP because so many of the new programs in this area need materials developed that will be specifically tailored to their requirements. This points out a problem that Strevens did not address, and that is the training of materials developers (a good teacher is not always a good materials developer, and vice versa). As of now adequate training in ESP materials development is not given by most MATESL programs, whether they be in England or in this country.

The third stage of program development, teacher preparation, is very important also. The best trained group of ESL teachers will find it tough going if they are not properly prepared for an ESP assignment. As I see it there are two types of preparation that have to be considered. The first is general ESP teacher preparation within the framework of an academic ESL teacher training program. Here student-teachers could at least be presented with the general theories of ESP, and be exposed to the various types of programs that have been developed. Secondly, pre-program teacher orientation sessions should be planned for specific ESP programs that will enable the teachers to get a grasp of what is required of them as a result of the special needs of their students and/or of the institutions that is employing the teachers. These two approaches to teacher preparation would go a long way in more properly preparing ESP teachers. In this country academic training in this area is sorely lacking, and it is only just beginning in England (Strevens, personal communication).

The final, and very crucial, component to consider in both the development and implementation of an ESP program is the place of evaluation in the program. According to Bachman (1978), serious efforts in incorporating evaluation into ESP programs are lacking. He points out that while most programs acknowledge the need to evaluate student proficiency or achievement, there are almost no descriptions or explanations of evaluation methods or results in such programs. He claims that most ESP project directors see the weaknesses in this area of evaluation and are beginning to work on the problem. He makes the interesting point here that evaluation is not testing and measurement per se; he says, "Evaluation, essentially, is the collection and use of information for the purpose of decision making" (Bachman, 1978). Testing and measurement, he implies, are two of the ways (but not the only ways) to gather this needed information. It follows here then that the standard techniques of formative evaluation, summative evaluation, and the like must be incorporated into the planning, execution, and conclusion of good and well balanced ESP programs. A model similar to this one has recently been developed by Joe Darwin Palmer (1978), and it will be treated in detail in the conclusion of this paper.

We have seen what the state of the art in English language teaching is today, what ESP is, and what considerations must be accounted for in ESP program development. In the following section we will look at various models in ESP research and their implications for materials design.

1. LINGUISTIC RESEARCH AND ESP

Recently an article has appeared that has shed light upon the contributions of applied linguistic research in the study of ESP. In 1976 Lee Kok Cheong published an article at the Regional English Language Centre in Singapore entitled "Trends in the Linguistic Study of English for Science and Technology" (Cheong, 1976). Cheong makes the point early on that the tremendous expansion of technology and science in the developing world has led to the recently rapid growth of the phenomenon of EST. He says that because today's applied linguists are interested in language as communication, EST research has become very attractive to them. He puts this into perspective by quoting British applied linguist Henry Widdowson who said, "The clarification which applied linguistics provides comes about as a result of relating the language teacher's beliefs about the attitudes to language and language learning, as they are revealed by his pedagogic practices, to the linguist's and psychologist's discoveries about language and learning by means of theoretical and experimental investigation" (Cheong, 1976).

In discussing the linguistic trends in studying EST Cheong divides his article into four parts: "(1) Pre-linguistic, traditional attitudes to the language of science, (2) linguistic analysis of the lexicon, (3) linguistic analysis of the syntax, and (4) discourse analysis" (Cheong, 1976).

He points out that traditionally English teachers considered the language of science to be rather cold and inexpressive. The English language was taught in most overseas universities as a Humanities subject which could later be applied to the learning of science, but Cheong states that this approach created what amounted to two English language cultures, one expressive of science and the other expressive of the rest of the milieu of English. Cheong feels that the major contradiction that arose for the student during this period of time was that what was held up as good, clear writing in the science classroom was criticized in the language classroom as being a stylistically weak use of the language. Also during this time (pre-1960's), Cheong claims that linguists kept themselves separated from language teachers, and saw little relationship between their work and the classroom practice of the teachers.

The first group of individuals that attempted to change this situation was not, as might be expected, the linguists, but rather the scientists and teachers. This change in attitude revolved mainly around the special structure and meaning of scientific vocabulary. This approach to scientific English began in the 1940's and 1950's, and it viewed the study of scientific lexicon on three general levels: "(1) ordinary language, (2) scientific language, and (3) intermediary (sub- or semi-technical) language" (Cheong, 1976). Cheong claims that the first level of ordinary language that contains common content words, function words, etc., may be the most difficult for the student to grasp because of their generality of use throughout the English language. The second level of scientific language looks complicated on the surface because of its many Latin and Greek roots and affixes. This is what some call the language of scientific classification or taxonomy. The language of a discipline such as mathematics would also be included here. Cheong hypothesizes that this may be the easiest level of lexis for the student to acquire because "learning the meanings of such words as carbohydrate, molecule, duodenum, aorta, etc., is an automatic consequence of studying the discipline which uses them" (Cheong, 1976). The third level which Cheong calls intermediary, or subtechnical, language may not prove difficult if the terms are learned within the context of the discipline that the learner is studying. He defines this type of language as terms taken from non-technical areas that are given technical meanings such as "eye of a storm," "teeth of a gear," etc. As mentioned above, Cowan has a different interpretation of the term subtechnical vocabulary. It will be seen below how he treates subtechnical vocabulary as a component of ESP materials design.

The greatest contribution to English language teaching of those who took an interest in scientific lexicon was the publication of word frequency counts in the English language. The two best known of these lists are the ones by Kucera and Francis, and by Michael West. The problems with these lists will be discussed later; however, it is enough to say here that their focus is on ordinary language and not scientific lexicon.

During the pre-eminence of structural linguistics in the 1950's and 1960's there was great emphasis on the surface structure of language. This led some applied linguists to do for scientific syntax what West, Kucera and Francis, and others did for scientific lexicon; namely to make frequency counts of the structures that occur within various chunks of scientific prose and then to arrive at a description of the characteristics of scientific English based on those counts. Cheong feels that this tended to oversimplify the syntax of scientific English by restricting it to a set of manageable patterns which were simple and considered to be essential for language learning. The problem with this is that the English language provides us with many ways, sometimes, of expressing the same thought. Cheong (1976) gives the following example to illustrate this point:

"1. Sodium and chlorine have respectively one too many and one too few valence.

"2. Sodium has one too many and chlorine one too few valence."

Here we see two ways of communicating the same fact, but the equivalency in meaning is not apparent from the two surface structures.

The advent of transformational-generative grammar spurred the researcher to develop a rigorous method for displaying the syntactic operations of language. The function of syntactic rules can be seen as that of a link between concepts or deep structure and surface structure. Hence structuralists, who only look at surface features, miss many significant relationships in English. The transformationalist could take Cheong's example, quoted above, and show how different surface structures are related. Similarly, other important insights of this type have only come to light as a result of transformational research. For example, it has been shown that many pre-nominally modified noun structures arise from the same deep structure as do certain relative constructions. In face the pre-nominally modified structure arises from the relative construction, as in the following:

1. We went to the conference that was in Shiraz.

2. We went to the Shiraz Conference.

Structuralism cannot account for this synonymy.

Recent studies have been done on the syntax of scientific English within a T-G framework. One of these studies that will be reviewed below, along with other models for ESP research, is that one done by Cowan and his associates at the Tehran University Language Center. Cheong points out that though very thorough, Cowan's study was based on discrete points, and that most T-G based applied linguists ignore the interaction among sentences in connected authentic discourse.

This brings us to the fourth, and current, trend in the study of EST, that is discourse analysis. This trend has arisen at the same time that pedagogy has become more focused on communicative competence. Discourse analysis focuses on describing the network of linguistic relationships intersententially and in paragraphs. In this area applied linguists are studying the structural elements, such as anaphoric relationships, connectives, and reference that create "grammatical cohesion" in English. It is the contention of researchers in discourse analysis that various rhetorical modes such as classification, definition, process, etc., are expressed through a system of what Cheong calls "interrelated linguistic elements," (Cheong, 1976) and that these elements demand certain grammatical choices. Discourse analysis emphasizes the reader's ability for prediction, recall, retrieval, synthesis, and for the critical assimilation of information. As such it bears a resemblance to the work that reading experts like Kenneth Goodman and Frank Smith are doing in the psycholinguistic aspects of reading English. Specific ESP research in discourse analysis will be treated later when the work of the American applied linguists Lakstrom, Selinker, and Trimble are discussed.

This concludes our treatment of the linguistic trends that have had and are having influence on EST. As we have seen the trends vary widely, but it does not mean that one is preferable to another. As Cheong has pointed out, a comprehensive description of EST which is so necessary for the design of meaningful ESP courses, could involve syntactic (textual) as well as discourse analysis.

2. CASE STUDIES

We will now turn to a review of some of the EST text materials that have been written during this decade. As was previously mentioned, ESP programs and textbooks are proliferating these days in the English teaching field. We must remember that these models were designed to meet different EST/ESP needs, and because of this they may differ greatly. "The model" for developing ESP materials cannot be developed because of the special, or specific nature of each program. Still, as we shall see, this has not precluded researchers from developing general elementary programs which stress the teaching of English within a scientific framework. Also, we will see at least one example where a writing program was developed for the faculty of science at a particular university, and then that text was redeveloped into a scientific writing text that is supposedly usable on a world-wide basis (Swales, 1971).

In a 1974 article in the *TESOL Quarterly*, Cowan presents a description of the work done by him and his research team in developing a special purpose EFL course for medical students at Tehran University. Cowan and his team began their research in 1972 and by 1974 they had produced a two-volume text designed to teach basic medical English to first year medical students. Cowan and his researchers were really pioneers in this area of ESP in American ESL. When they began their work at the Tehran University Language Centre (TULC) they had no previous texts to guide them and precious few theoretical guidelines in the area of ESP either. They began by recognizing that they were starting from scratch, and they took as one of their major theoretical guidelines Eskey's 1971 article in the *English Teaching Forum*. In that article, one of the earlier general articles in American ESL that began to deal with ESP problems, Eskey isolated two major linguistic problems for non-native speakers of English in processing English discourse: (1) vocabulary problems, and (2) structural problems (Eskey, 1971). These two areas of lexis and syntax formed the major areas of research for the team.

It should be mentioned here that there are other non-linguistic factors that had to be considered throughout the text writing process. The three most important of these that were dealt with according to Cowan were: "(1) Persian students' inability to process sentences in phrase units, (2) their inability to make generalizations and inferences based on what they have read, and (3) problems in comprehension due to the cultural context of the materials" (Cowan, 1974). These are, of course, not problems specific to ESP teaching in Iran, but to all foreign language teaching there, and were very important in guiding the team's overall research effort. It is important to note here something that was alluded to previously, namely that in ESP research of this kind the researchers must take into account the extra-linguistic factors that influence the language acquisition process of the learners for whom the course is being designed. This "tailoring" of a course to a group of learners, to meet their specific needs, is really one of the most important aspects of the whole new ESP movement.

Following Eskey's approach then the first linguistic problem addressed was that of vocabulary. The question was: What type and amount of vocabulary should be presented to first year (18- to 20-year old) Iranian medical students who would take a medically-oriented English course for two hours a day, five days a week, for an academic year of two standard semesters? The common service lists of the most frequently occurring words in English, on which the vocabulary in many ESL texts is based, were found to be rather inadequate. As previously mentioned, they contain what Cheong called "ordinary language." The Cowan group found them to be rather inadequate because they contained few references to the subtechnical vocabulary necessary to understand medical prose, let alone mentions of strictly medical terminology.

At this point I would like to briefly redefine the term subtechnical vocabulary that Cowan developed. Cheong defines it as "borrowed words from non-technical spheres" (Cheong, 1976); however, Cowan defines subtechnical vocabulary as "context independent words which occur with high frequency across disciplines. Examples would be items like: function, inference, isolate, relation, basis, presuppose, simulate, approximately, etc." (Cowan, 1974). This is a more exact definition of subtechnical vocabulary, and it was explained earlier.

What the research team did then was to develop their own list of subtechnical and technical vocabulary based on a computer analysis of over 100,000 running words of English language medical prose. The vocabulary was then ordered in terms of the frequency in which it appeared. Incidentally, the correspondence between this frequency list and the so-called standard lists was so low that it clearly points out the need for such analysis when preparing ESP materials.

After this lexical analysis was completed, the second major half of the research that led up to the preparation of the text was undertaken, and that was a syntactic analysis of the same sample of over 100,000 words of medical discourse that was used for the lexical analysis. (By the way, this discourse was drawn from a number of medical textbooks and professional journals.) The previously developed computer program was modified to fit a structural analysis. The end product was that each sentence in the running discourse was isolated on the computer printout as a separate entity, as with the lexical items, but here the structure of the particular sentence was also listed, and a tabulation was made of how many times certain structures appeared in this string of discourse.

The next step in this research was the organization of the data, and the implementation of the results of the research in the form of ESP text development proceeded with a number of important considerations coming into play. Among these guiding considerations was the careful selection and adaptation of reading passages for the proposed text, based upon the completed lexical and syntactic research. Then certain types of exercises for structure, vocabulary, and reading comprehension had to be devised. When finalized, the form of the individual units and occurrence of the exercises and reading passages stayed the same throughout the material (i.e., the physical plan of each unit does not vary significantly from unit to unit).

The final product was two volumes containing 14 lessons overall (each lesson was divided into two units). Commonly occurring structures appear in the early lessons. For example, the passive voice, common in medical English, is taught in lesson 2 (i.e., units 3 and 4). This is in sharp contrast to most general ESL programs where the passive is not taught until about the final 33% of the structure course. So we see the students being exposed to common, necessary structures for medical English early on in the course. As a point of clarification it should be noted that all these Tehran University medical students had studied English for six years in secondary school, but this should not be taken to mean that their English was good. A great deal of classroom time in situations like this has to be spent in undoing the mistakes of their secondary school instruction.

This plan for the development of this project followed the main points outlined earlier by Cowan, and below by Palmer, that are necessary steps in good ESP program design. A needs assessment was done in order to determine what Tehran University medical students needed, i.e., a reader to develop basic skills for reading Medical English, given the short time available for instruction (2 hours a day per week, over the course of an Iranian academic year). Text analysis was done to discover the special nature of the lexis and syntax of Medical English. Discourse factors were not specifically dealt with because research in this area that might have provided a theoretical framework was still in its infancy. Finally, formative and summative evaluations were done, and the formative evaluations of each lesson in the pilot text were used to refine the final product.

The next ESP course that I would like to discuss is the one developed at Tabriz University in Tabriz, Iran, by the British EST specialist Tony Dudley-Evans and his associates. The general situation that these people faced at Tabriz University was by and large the same that Cowan's group was confronted with at Tehran University. The Dudley-Evans group also found that although their students had studied English for six years in secondary schools, their English was far from adequate when they entered the university; however, they did need to learn enough English to read books in their specific fields, and to comprehend occasional English lectures. One possible problem that Dudley-Evans et al. do not mention in their article describing the development of the EST program at Tabriz University is the fact that the vast majority of students at that university are not native speakers of Persian. Most of the people in that part of Iran are speakers of a dialect of Turkish which is structurally quite different from both English and Persian. The students all had received their primary and secondary educations in Persian and therefore were in the position of learning English as a third language. Although the students' Persian must have been fluent enough for university work, the fact remains that in the province of Iran Turkish is the language of both social and commercial intercourse, and Persian the language of education. It would be interesting to know what, if any, linguistic problems this might have caused for the students. Furthermore, one wonders whether it was necessary to take this fact into account when designing materials, and teaching in the classroom.

This group of researchers began their work with the goal that their materials "would have to provide the students with the language and strategies they need to read scientific texts at the undergraduate level in their major subjects, and that the minimum objectives should be the developing of the grammatical, conceptual, and rhetorical competence of the students" (Dudley-Evans et al., 1976). Unlike the Tehran University situation, students in technical fields at Tabriz University were required to do two years of English. The research team therefore designed a set of first-year and second-year materials. Like the Cowan materials the first-year lessons were divided up into a two-unit sequence, but with a major difference. The Tehran University materials built up structure and vocabulary throughout the two-unit sequence, and this culminated in a major length reading passage. In the Tabriz materials, however, such lengthy reading passages were left to the second-year course and the first-year course consisted of twelve units of English as a foreign language taught within the framework of general science. Then there follow 12 additional units of study which are specific to the students' areas of study. Dudley-Evans makes it clear that in these units the English teacher is not teaching the specific scientific discipline, like Biology, Engineering, etc., but rather he is teaching the English used in those specific areas of study. He states that the team took pains not to encroach upon the instructional domains of any of these subject areas.

The units from the general science part of the course and the discipline specific part of the course were taught in tandem, i.e., unit one of the general course was coordinated with unit one of the specific course, and so on. The general course was the same for all students involved irrespective of their fields of study. Dudley-Evans et al. point out that this tandem teaching of the two parts of the course is one of its strong points in that the students continually see the application of general scientific English applied to their areas of interest from the beginning to the end of the course. The general course and the specific courses have various objectives. The aim of each general unit is to: "(1) Introduce a new area of conceptual content which we refer to as concept. (2) Focus on 'semi-technical' English" (their term for subtechnical vocabulary). "(3) Provide situations which are generally relevant to science; that is, either situations from science with which the students should be familiar, or more general situations which can be exploited for the purpose of practising scientific English, e.g., describing a bicycle. (4) Encourage active participation by the students in using language in these situations." Each specific unit tries to: "(1) Develop the concept and the related semi-technical language of the corresponding general unit along with specific language items from the specialist subject which are related to the concept, and (2) provide greater emphasis on reading and intensive listening" (Dudley-Evans et al., 1976).

Before briefly commenting on the second-year materials it is necessary to define this term of "concept" that the authors use. In organizing their materials, i.e., in grading them for the order of presentation, they claim to have done some kind of work with structure, but they do not mention what they did. Even after looking at the textbook *General Science* one is still in somewhat of a quandary about what type of methodology was used in deciding which structures to teach and when. What Dudley-Evans et al., and another of their colleagues, Martin Bates (Bates, 1978), spend time discussing is justification of their approach of basing each of the general units around a "concept." I am sure that this approach was dictated by their adherence to a belief in teaching the functional, or notional, aspects of language. The functional/notional approach to syllabus design and teaching is a system of L2 instruction that is very popular in Europe now. This syllabus design plan has been popularized by D.A. Wilkins in England, and its guiding principle is that communicative competence be the goal of L2 instruction at all levels (Wilkins, 1976). The functional element of a syllabus like Wilkins' model is concerned with such things as who the learner is, the setting (social or professional) where he will use the language under study, etc. These functional units were organized by "basing each unit on an important scientific concept, such as structure, proportion, causation, etc." (Bates, 1978). Bates points out that while these and other concepts that were chosen were important to science, they were not exclusively the property of science, and therefore were readily understandable to the English teachers who were by and large liberal arts graduates. Bates makes no apology for how the concepts were arrived at, in fact, he candidly points out that "the key concepts which formed the notional basis of the course were arrived at mainly intuitively from the experience of teaching scientific and technical texts for some years" (Bates, 1978). If I may be allowed a brief value judgment here, I would like to say that this does not seem to be a very scientific approach to writing a course in Scientific English, and yet the general lessons developed in Tabriz are now circulated around the world in the book *General Science* by Dudley-Evans and Martin Bates.

Finally, the second-year materials have not yet been developed as much as the first-year units. These second-year courses contain only units with specific subject content, and no general lessons as was the case with the first-year materials. It is claimed that by the second year the students should be familiar with the concepts of science and the structures that express them. The rhetorical organization of English discourse is stressed in these materials, and each unit attempts to: "introduce a new rhetorical act, (2) practise grammatical and lexical items associated with that act and the ways in which they signal it, (3) illustrate the relation of rhetorical acts together with aspects of textual and logical cohesion by various exercises and by reference to actual discourse" (Dudley-Evans et al., 1976). The standard rhetorical modes of Definition, Classification, Description, and others were chosen to replace a "concept" as the central theme of each unit. Again, as with concepts, the choice of selecting and grading the rhetorical modes seems to have been somewhat of an arbitrary process.

It was here in the second-year courses that much more emphasis was placed on the reading skill, and therefore longer passages of authentic scientific discourse were possible and were presented to the students in each unit. The nature of the second-year materials (i.e., as a reading oriented course of study) seems to have caused a squelching of some of the first-year course enthusiasm that the authors claim that the students had for the course. Dudley-Evans et al. state that "because of the greater focus on reading, the productive participation of the students characteristic of the first-year course was not always maintained. This may be inherent in reading courses as the use of actual discourse involves high vocabulary loads and this can imply a more passive role for the student" (Dudley-Evans et al., 1976). I would like to say that this view of a reading centered course need not be the situation. The authors should take an active view of the reading process rather than a passive one, and should constantly be reinforcing this as a challenge to the students. This should be done in an indirect manner, and hopefully it would give the student a much more positive view of the reading process.

The two efforts at EST materials development that we have looked at so far have been primarily concerned with the teaching of scientific reading in English. The third and final attempt at EST course design that we shall discuss focuses on the writing skill, aptly enough this text is called *Writing Scientific English*, and it was prepared by another British ESP expert, John Swales.

Swales was the head of the English department in the Faculty of Engineering of the University of Libya in Tripoli from 1966 to 1970. His textbook

Writing Scientific English (WSE) was the product of a four-year effort on his part to develop a technical writing program to meet the unique needs of first- and second-year students in the five-year undergraduate course of study in Engineering at the University of Libya.

The first-year students that Swales dealt with were similar to the Iranian students mentioned above. They came to the university with six years of secondary school experience in English, and their principal study skill in approaching a learning situation of any kind was that of rote memorization. Like their Iranian counterparts they also had a generally poor level of English, particularly in the so-called productive skills of speaking and writing. What made these students different from others in standard Middle Eastern institutions of higher learning was that they were required to do some coursework and laboratory work in English right from their first year of university instruction. It was this situation that led Swales to develop the policy for his department that the reading and listening skills required for successful coursework would be developed, despite any particular EST instruction, by the students themselves out of the necessity to prepare for their courses and to understand the lectures presented to them. He also admitted that he and his colleagues had more knowledge about the testing of reading than about the problems of teaching it within a scientific framework. Since Swales and his staff were, as are most ESL teachers, liberal arts oriented he also felt that they could much better manage the instruction process if they stressed the speaking and writing skills. In a recent article about the development of WSE he gives three reasons for the adoption of this rationale: "A writing/speaking orientation would allow us to keep rather more within our scientific depth. The more confidence we could give the students in their writing ability, the less likely they would be to fall back on the educationally unsatisfactory procedure of learning paragraphs and pages from their textbooks by heart. We had a good enough staff-student ratio to be able to correct the students' work, and we could use the lab (i.e., language lab) for remedial work on the recurrent grammatical errors" (Swales, 1978).

With this assessment of the situation he began the four-year process of developing his materials. Because this text was developed in the late 1960's the theories behind such linguistic tools as discourse analysis and functional/notional syllabuses were not available to him. Yet he based a number of his units around the various rhetorical modes necessary for scientific communication, and the attendant structures that this communication requires. Other lessons in WSE are presented within frameworks of various scientific and technical skills that the students had to be conversant with such as the interpretation of tables and graphs.

No scientific analysis of lexicon and structure after Cowan was done, and there does not seem to have been any systematic study of the concepts of science such as Dudley-Evans et al. did. On the other hand, Swales defends the overall strength of his work because it was developed over a four-year period of constant trial and error testing of the lessons in actual classroom situations at the University of Libya. There is nothing strange about the way this was done either. If lessons failed they were revised and retaught until they were acceptable, of if they were repeatedly ineffective they were eliminated.

The structures taught in the text were not graded from simple to difficult in conformity with some predetermined cline of linguistic difficulty. Instead, structures were selected as they were needed in order to give the students the necessary grammatical tools to express themselves in the various rhetorical modes of scientific prose, and also to enable them to successfully deal with the different scientific and technical skills that they were learning. This trial and error situation points up a very interesting fact about EST materials development, namely the time element involved in such work. If a team of EST program developers have four or five years as Swales did to prepare a course of study, then perhaps the constant trial and error approach to such materials preparation can be very effective. There really is nothing that "fine tunes" materials more than classroom pilot testing. On the other hand, and this is becoming prevalent today, if an organization requires the preparation of course materials within a limited frame of time, say a year or eighteen months, then it seems reasonable to suppose that the materials would have to be based on some kind of a predetermined cline of structural and lexical difficulty that emerged as a result of an initial scientifically oriented linguistic study of the discourse of the discipline that would provide the framework for the EST course.

We have seen above representative samples of three major approaches to EST materials development. Cowan's work was formed around a transformationally-based analysis of the functional language of medicine. Dudley-Evans et al. also used a notional/functional approach in developing their materials, and they also relied to some extent on discourse analysis in the designing of their second year reading materials. Finally we have seen that a talented group of researchers and teachers who have enough time for the completion of their task can prepare very satisfactory EST materials by the trial and error method in the classroom. The "time-luxury" inherent in this approach reduces the course developers' dependency on any single methodological approach to materials preparation.

Articles containing detailed descriptions of the development of the whole ESP/EST discipline and articles describing individual course development are now becoming popular in the theoretical and practical literature of English language teaching. In this regard three anthologies on ESP/EST require brief mention at this time. The first two are British offerings, and the third is an American publication. The first of these is *Teaching English for Science and Technology*, edited by Jack Richards. This is a collection of papers delivered at the Tenth Regional Seminar of the Regional English Language Centre (RELC) in Singapore in 1975, and the book came out in 1976. It is one of the earliest EST anthologies and it deals with a number of EST-related areas. It is divided into four parts that deal with linguistic analysis, lexical study, materials development and teacher training, respectively. The strength of the volume is in Part III where seven articles on materials preparation and course organization are presented. The articles by Cheong and Dudley-Evans et al. previously referred to, are found in this book. I have dubbed this book a British offering simply because RELC is very heavily influenced by British methodology, because Richards is British, and because with possibly two exceptions the papers presented were written by British authors or British-trained people at RELC. One exception to this that I will discuss in the next section is an article presented by the American team of Selinker, Todd-Trimble, and Trimble.

A second excellent British anthology is *English for Specific Purposes*, edited by Ronald Mackay and Alan Mountford. Published by Longman in 1978. this book is divided into three parts: (1) general problems of EST, (2) approaches to textbook design, and (3) case studies. The two articles cited above by Swales and Bates can be found in Part 2 of this text. Again its strength lies in its inclusion of eight out of its ten articles in the area of course or syllabus design. The major weakness of this and the Richards anthology is that the area of teacher training and future research needs in EST are treated cursorily or ignored.

Finally "Language for Special Purposes," Special Issue of *Studies in Language Learning*, edited by J.R. Cowan at the University of Illinois, contains articles on the teaching of Russian, German, and French for special purposes as well as two very good articles that deal with ESP. One of these, by Peter Strevens, has been quoted extensively in this paper. Near the end of his volume Cowan also provides the researcher and teacher of ESP/EST with a very valuable fourteen-page bibliography of the field. A follow up issue to this should be attempted that would deal only with ESP/EST.

3. REQUIREMENTS FOR ESP COURSE DESIGN

As has been seen above there are a wide variety of approaches to ESP course design; some rely on text analysis (Cowan), discourse analysis (Dudley-Evans et al.), and some use an admittedly "hit and miss" approach (Swales). From these examples and after reviewing the various approaches to course design it is rather evident that two major components in governing ESP course design have been lacking until now. These two elements are a definite structural approach for a sequenced schema to be used in overall ESP course planning, and a strong theoretically-based curriculum design model for materials development in such programs that would focus on client (i.e., student) needs.

The first element mentioned above, a sequenced schema for ESP course planning, could take many directions, but a seemingly very useful attempt at developing such a schema has been recently proposed by Joe Darwin Palmer in the December 1978 *TESOL Quarterly*. Palmer makes the point that the components of his schema are not all new, but it is just that because ESP is a relatively recent phenomenon that such an ordered approach is needed at this time to guide the development of what most experts feel will be a great number of English courses in this area. The steps that he feels should comprise such a schema are as follows: "(1) Needs Surveys, (2) Textual Analysis, (3) Discourse Analysis, (4) Methodology and Syllabus, (5) Formative and Summative Evaluation, and (6) Modification of Methodology and Syllabus" (Palmer, 1978).

Needs assessment is the first, and possibly the most important, step in the schema. It is here that information must be gathered so that the course planner can precisely identify who the learner is (i.e., his age, occupation, previous training or education, career goals, to what use he will put the language when he finishes the course, etc.). Consideration of all of these, and other factors, is the basis of the learner-centered ESP course. The needs of the learners will also determine the methodological approach of the course. For example, if the needs of the students were focused on reading then a linguistic methodology such as that used at Tehran might be preferred. If the course were to be geared to teaching air-traffic controllers the English of their profession, a functional methodology (after Wilkins) might be used. Finally, suppose a communicative approach to the language is needed in a situation, for example, where foreign doctors need to be taught how to interact with their patients; here a socio-linguistic approach could be taken in order to teach the doctors "how" to talk to people using not only linguistic but also the para-linguistic devices essential for communication. Needs assessment then, shows the ESP program planner exactly what has to be developed in order to meet the specific needs of the learner. This first step in ESP program planning is crucial, and the other steps in the schema naturally follow from it.

After a general and thorough needs survey is completed, a textual analysis of materials in the learners' field must be undertaken. Textual analysis shows the ESP program developer what it is about texts, syntax, lexis, etc., that cause difficulties for the learners with relation to the skills that they need in English. This step involves the analysis of text materials in context and experimental testing to see just what are, or are not, problems for the ESP student. For example, one would have to determine in a scientifically-oriented program whether or not scientific prefixes and suffixes cause problems for the learner, as Cheong maintains above. Another possibly important area of research to consider here might be whether or not derivational morphology (i.e., word family relationships) cause problems for the learners. Finally a very important aspect of this step is the isolation, through research, of those items that are necessary for the students' appreciation and understanding of what kinds of devices give cohesion, i.e., texture, to an English language text in their field. A major contribution to providing a model for this type of research has recently been published by Halliday and Hasan (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

The third step in this schema is discourse analysis. It is here that the rhetorical features of the styles or registers under consideration are identified for the purpose of being integrated into the curriculum (syllabus) design. The most thorough work done in this area is that of Larry Selinker, John Lakstrom, and Louis Trimble at the University of Washington. These researchers have written many appealing articles that deal with the rhetorical nature of scientific discourse. Among the basic rhetorical modes of English they state that classification and definition are very important for the writing and understanding of scientific English. In 1976 Selinker, Todd-Trimble, and Trimble published a very interesting article entitled "Presuppositional Rhetorical Information in EST Discourse" (Selinker et al., 1976). The basic conclusion of this article was that when information in either of the modes of classification or definition is explicit then most ESL students have little trouble with it, but when such information is implicitly indicated throughout a passage most ESL students find such information difficult to process. Why is this so? Selinker et al. do not tell us, and herein lies one of the major weaknesses of their approach to discourse analysis, a severe lack of empirical data to support their rather interesting and attractive claims. Perhaps previous education has a great effect on how ESL learners process or do not process various rhetorical modes in English. Kaplan has suggested that this is a serious cross-cultural rhetorical problem (Kaplan, 1972). What is needed then is a rigorous empirical methodology for analyzing the very interesting suppositions of the type that Selinker et al. have posited about the nature of scientific rhetoric. This will enable the course planner to provide the learners with the type of instruction necessary to either process or produce, if necessary, materials that are framed within one or many of the standard rhetorical modes of English. It is in this step of discourse analysis that the planner/researcher must identify the rhetorical/communicative needs of his learner population, just as he determined their grammatical needs in the previous step of text analysis.

The next step in the plan is the adoption of a methodology (or approach) to materials design and the development of a syllabus (curriculum) based on the approach. As seen above in the needs assessment discussion the methodology, i.e., linguistic, functional, etc., is by and large determined by the needs assessment survey of the client population. Even after a thorough needs survey the choice between the competing alternative methodologies is largely based on hunches, faith, on the types of views that the researcher has about language, and on the way in which the four skills of language have to be balanced in order to meet the learners' needs. One beautifully designed syllabus model that is rigorously based on sociolinguistic theory has just recently been designed by John Munby. His *Communicative Syllabus Design* is firmly rooted in and framed with Hymes' sociolinguistic model known as the Ethnography of Communication. This work by Munby is very appealing in that it potentially provides a syllabus model for the universal design of ESP course syllabuses (Munby, 1978). Since Munby's model is new it is precisely at this time that parts of it should be subjected to empirical validation. This is the type of strong curriculum design model that was mentioned above.

The fifth component of Palmer's schema is the evaluation of the methods and materials used in implementing the syllabus. Like Bachman above, Palmer distinguishes between formative and summative evaluation. The formative evaluation is used to gather information about how effective the materials are, and also about how effective the teaching of the materials is. On the basis of such information decisions may be made about the linguistic, psychological, and sociological aspects of the course, and thereby indicate where the syllabus and the teaching are strong and/or where changes are necessary. The summative evaluation compares the particular course under scrutiny with those that have gone before it to determine the overall effectiveness of the program. The results of a summative evaluation would be used to determine, among other things, if a course were to be continued, if the goals of the syllabus were met, or as a guideline for developing similar ESP courses in the future.

Finally, Palmer states that from time to time materials and methods have to be changed or modified based on the effectiveness of the course as determined by ongoing formative evaluation. This I think is a very obvious step in the development of all sound educational coursework, and it need not be treated in any depth here. The standard techniques of developing and modifying materials that are taught in any basic ESL methodology course are probably adaptable to this situation.

In this new era of learner-centered instruction in English as a Second Language teaching, all of the above six steps are essential components of an ESP course planning schema. Two important steps in this schema, however, need further detailed attention at this time while the field of ESP is still young. The first step that needs attention is discourse analysis. Selinker, Trimble et al. have given us some very promising hypothetical models for the rhetorical structure of scientific English. These models now need to be either supported or rejected as a result of well planned testing procedures that would: (1) isolate the rhetorical devices necessary for the comprehension of scientific prose, and (2) identify which devices will cause problems for the ESL student. The second area that needs further research and development is that of methodology choice and syllabus design. Since ESP programs normally put heavy emphasis on communication skills, newly developed syllabus designs (like Munby's instrument) which stress the development of communication centered curricula should be tested empirically to see if their strong theoretical foundations really do lead to the development of useful and practical communicative syllabuses.

REFERENCES

Allen, Harold B., ed., 1965, *Teaching English as a Second Language*. New York: McGraw Hill Co.

Allen, Harold B., and Russell Campbell, eds., 1972, *Teaching English as a Second Language*. New York: McGraw Hill Co.

Bachman, Lyle, 1978, "Formative Evaluation in ESP Program Development," Paper delivered at TESOL Convention, Mexico City.

Bates, Martin, 1978, "Writing *Nucleus*," in Mackay and Mountford, eds., *English for Specific Purposes*. London: Longman.

Bates, Martin, and Tony Dudley-Evans, 1976, *Nucleus*, *General Science*. London: Longman.

Burke, S.J., 1974, "Notes and Discussion," in *International Review of Applied Linguistics*.

Chastain, Kenneth, 1969, "The Audio-Lingual Habit Theory Versus the Cognitive Code Learning Theory: Some Theoretical Considerations," *International Review of Applied Linguistics*.

Cheong, L.K., 1976, "Trends in the Linguistic Study of English for Science and Technology," in Richards, J., ed., *Teaching English for Science and Technology*. Singapore: Singapore University Press.

Cowan, J.R., 1974, "Lexical and Syntactic Research for the Design of EFL Reading Materials," *TESOL Quarterly*.

_____, ed., 1977, "Language for Special Purposes," Special Issue of *Studies in Language Learning* 2(1). Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Language Learning Laboratory.

_____, 1978, "Investigating the English of Science and Technology," The American Contributions Paper at the Linguistic Society of America's Summer Institute, Urbana, Illinois.

Cowan, J.R., L. Bauman, E. Mackelduff, R. Elkins, C. Trupin, and M. Varzegar, 1975, *English for Medical Students*. Tehran: Tehran University Press.

Dudley-Evans, T., C.C. Shettlesworth, and M.K. Phillips, 1976, "The ESP Materials of the University of Azarabadegan, Tabriz, Iran," in Richards, J., ed., *Teaching English for Science and Technology.* Singapore: Singapore University Press.

Eskey, David, 1971, "Advanced Reading: The Structural Problem," *English Teaching Forum* 9.

Halliday, M.A.K., and Ruqaiya Hasan, 1976, *Cohesion in English.* London: Longman.

Holden, Susan, ed., 1977, *English for Specific Purposes.* London: Modern English Publications Ltd.

Kaplan, Robert, 1972, "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education," in Allen and Campbell, eds., *Teaching English as a Second Language.* New York: McGraw Hill Co.

Lambert, Wallace, 1965, "Psychological Approaches to the Study of Language," in Allen, H.B., ed., *Teaching English as a Second Language.* New York: McGraw Hill Co.

Mackay, Ronald, and Alan Mountford, eds., 1978, *English for Specific Purposes.* London: Longman.

Munby, John, 1978, *Communicative Syllabus Design.* London: Cambridge University Press.

Newmark, Gerald, and Edward Diller, 1965, "Emphasizing the Audio in the Audio-Lingual Approach," in Allen, H.B., ed., *Teaching English as a Second Language.* New York: McGraw Hill Co.

Palmer, Joe Darwin, 1978, "A Review of *English for Specific Purposes*, by Ronald Mackay and Alan Mountford," in *TESOL Quarterly*, December.

Selinker, Larry, Louis Trimble, and Robert Vroman, 1974, "Presupposition and Technical Rhetoric," in *English Language Teaching*, October.

Selinker, Larry, R.M. Todd-Trimble, and Louis Trimble, 1976, "Presuppositional Rhetorical Information in ESL Discourse," in *TESOL Quarterly*, September.

Richards, Jack, ed., 1976, *Teaching English for Science and Technology.* Singapore: Singapore University Press.

Ross, Leonard Q., 1937, *The Education of Hyman Kaplan.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co.

Savignon, Sandra, 1976, "Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice," Keynote Address, Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Detroit.

Strevens, Peter, 1977a, *New Orientations in the Teaching of English.* London: Oxford University Press.

Strevens, Peter, 1977b, "English for Special Purposes: An Analysis and Survey," in Cowan, J.R., ed., "Language for Special Purposes," Special Issue of *Studies in Language Learning* 2(1). Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Language Learning Laboratory.

Swales, John, 1971, *Writing Scientific English*. London: Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd.

_____, 1978, "Writing *Writing Scientific English*," in Mackay and Mountford, eds., *English for Specific Purposes*. London: Longman.

Wilkins, D.A., 1976, *Notional Syllabuses*. London: Oxford University Press.

Wise, Sheldon, 1965, *Spoken English for Turks*. Istanbul, Turkey: Robert College.

REVIEWS

Studies in Language Learning (1982), 4, 120-132.

Edward L. Blansitt, Jr., and Richard V. Teschner, eds., *A Festschrift for Jacob Ornstein. Studies in General Linguistics and Sociolinguistics.*
(Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House, 1980, 331 pp.)

Elizabeth Pearce, Department of Linguistics, University of Illinois

In the range of studies represented in this volume dedicated to Jacob Ornstein, the great majority deal with one or another aspect of the language behavior of the Spanish-speaking population in the Southwest of the United States. The topics include: discussions of language and dialect maintenance and interaction (J.A. Fishman, R.J. Di Pietro, B. Hoffer, W.P. Lehmann, W.F. Mackey, Y.R. Solé, R.N. St. Clair, G. Valdés, J.T. Webb), studies of language competence and context of use (A. Hudson-Edwards and G.D. Bills, A.G. Lozano, J.H. Matluck, N. Sobin, C.A. Solé), investigations of the phonological features of Spanish and of the English of the Hispanic population (J. Amastae, J.R. Craddock, M.J. Doviak and A. Hudson-Edwards, C. Elerick, T.D. Terrell), and studies of lexical innovations (E.G. Cotton and J.M. Sharp, M.C. Resnick). In addition, two papers treat aspects of language pedagogy (D.S. Natalicio, R.L. Politzer) and two papers are devoted to specific questions of syntactic analysis (E.L. Blansitt, P.H. Fries). A further three papers do not belong to any of the above categories (J.M.L. Blanch, B.L. Dubois, A. Makkai). The volume includes a biography of Jacob Ornstein by Teschner, portraying the diversity of Ornstein's linguistic competences and activities and the importance of his work in promoting interest in Mexican-American sociolinguistics.

In the more general discussions of language and dialect interaction, a recurring theme is that of the need to establish frameworks and methodologies for the investigation of the relevant phenomena. Thus, Hoffer: "Class by value system: implications for bilingual education," argues that the traditional parameters used to define socio-economic class distinctions provide an inadequate basis for determining the varying *attitudes* within a community towards bilingual education. Hoffer makes a plea for the use of class definitions ranging from the most "family" oriented (favoring the maintenance of the traditional language and values) to the most "self" oriented (favoring greater assimilation to the American English speaking context). From an altogether different perspective, St. Clair: "Language and diversity: a sociolinguistic perspective" criticizes what he sees as the major current assumption in sociolinguistic investigations: the view that dialect systems are to be measured as continua characterized on the basis of distance from a central definition point. This non-empirical assessment of how dialect differences ought to be described (as more heterogeneous than the above model suggests) is based on notions of prevailing tendencies in Western philosophy. At a more precise level of description, Di Pietro: "Role enactment and verbal stragegies in the U.S. Virgin Islands," whilst accepting the creole continuum model, appraises the strategies used by speakers in shifting from one level to another with the aim of understanding the "dynamic forces affecting the shape of polylectal grammars." One instance in which the evolution of a language system may be disrupted occurs when existing rules of form, such as speech protocols, block the acquisition of new rules. Two further papers on creole questions are Mackey: "The Creole dilemma" and Webb: "Pidgins (and Creoles?) on the U.S.-Mexican border." Mackey gives an inconclusive discussion on the question of whether creoles could be institutionalized as official languages. The paper by

Webb provides some intriguing information on the *caló* border dialect along with some discussion of the status of this and other dialects as being outside the standard creole pattern. A further paper dealing with dialect interaction, Valdés: "Is code-switching interference, integration, or neither?," reviews the literature on this many-faceted topic. Finally, the papers by Y.R. Solé and by Lehmann are review discussions, and Fishman reports on a conference. Overall, most of the papers on dialect definition and methodology are rather higher on discussion than they are on new material.

The investigations of language use report on the results of ongoing research. Two studies, Hudson-Edwards and Bills: "Intergenerational language shift in an Albuquerque barrio" and C.A. Solé: "Language usage patterns among a young generation of Cuban-Americans," both confirm the pattern of generational differences as the most important indicators of the tendency to increasing use of English for speakers raised in Spanish-speaking contexts. From the rigorous investigation reported by Hudson-Edwards and Bills, an important predictive indicator is formulated: "language shift can be detected in its early stages...when the proportion of ethnic mother tongue claimants exceeds the proportion of fluent speakers of the language and when the latter, in turn, exceeds the proportion of those using the ethnic tongue as their primary home language." Thus, for the junior generation of the barrio: 44% claim Spanish as their mother tongue, but only 33% maintain a fluent command of Spanish. The same analysis technique can be applied to the C-A context. The figures for the adolescents of the group of Solé's study, claimed to be the most affluent subgroup of Spanish speakers in the U.S., show 75% with Spanish as the first language acquired, 68% claiming to speak Spanish fluently and 26% claiming to speak Spanish better than English.

The Mexican-American context provides a basis for the consideration of first language interference in second language acquisition. Sobin: "On transference and inversion" comes to the conclusion that the patterns of acquisition by children of English Yes-No questions, Wh Questions and Negation do not provide support for a transference factor. The study by Lozano: "English tense development in a Spanish dominant child" is inconclusive in so far as possible interference is concerned since it lacks comparison with data of acquisition by English monolinguals. A more extensive study reported by Matluck: "Bilingualism of Mexican-American children: language characteristics" investigates errors produced by children in Grade levels I-IV in terms of a semantic categorization reflecting concepts required for basic communication. Such language study is useful as a diagnostic for levels of proficiency, but without an extensive comparison with monolingual acquisition of a variety of languages, it is not clear to what extent inability to express a concept correctly in a given language is a factor of concept acquisition or of language competence.

The phonologies of Spanish and of Spanish speakers bring us to questions of syllable and word final sibilants. Doviak and Hudson-Edwards: "Phonological variation in Chicano English: word-final (z)-devoicing" show that the nature of the contraints on the variable rules operating on /z/devoicing the Chicano English is phonologically rather than socially conditioned and that Chicano English is a particular variety of English which belongs to a particular speech community whose members may or may not speak Spanish. Terrell: "The problem of comparing variable rules across dialects" demonstrates that the variable rule of final /s/ weakening and deletion has a different ordering of contextual constraints in different dialects and that a higher proportion of deletion correlates with stronger grammatical (morphological) rather than phonological constraints. Amastae: "On markedness and sociolinguistic variation" enters the markedness debate with a "difficulty" hierarchy based on some material which this reviewer finds not very illuminating. A curious paper by Elerick: "On the form of bilingual grammars: the phonological component" sets up underlying forms for Spanish and English cognate words and provides systems of rules (17 for English and 9 for Spanish--but not including stress assignment in either case), to derive the surface forms. The validity of the attempt is mitigated by, among other things, the fact that all of the 40 derivable cognates just "happen" to be of Romance origin. Thus, Elerick suggests that Spanish has fewer rules than English because Spanish is "more conservative phonologically" than English. Outside of the domain Spanish/American, Craddock: "The contextual varieties of *yod*: an attempt at systematization" provides an interesting reformulation of the effect of *yod* in the historical evolution of Spanish vowels.

Lexical borrowing is an obvious feature of the bilingual context and Cotton and Sharp: "Neologistic palatal + *ar* verbs in Mexican-American Spanish" examine a coherently defined set of verbs in terms of culture based semantic categories. Certain of the categories exhibit higher proportions of English derived neologisms than others. What is most interesting is the apparently large number of Spanish-based neologisms, especially in the area of "behavior" (=77.4%). The use of English words in shop front signs in non-tourist areas of Puerto Rico is investigated by Resnick: "El lenguaje de la publicidad en Puerto Rico--usos y efectos del inglés." Some of the words are not well understood by the local population and prestige can provide the motivation for their presence.

Two papers in the *Festschrift* treat of aspects of pedagogy. Natalicio: "Contrastive linguistics and the preparation of bilingual teachers" discusses the pitfalls of a rigid contrastive analysis framework in the preparation of bilingual education teachers; and Politzer: "Student reactions as indicators of teaching efficiency" analyzes classroom teaching to conclude that directions to perform tasks are more effective in inducing student response than questions aimed at eliciting information.

The questions of syntax treated in this volume go outside of the realm of Spanish-American. Fries: "On negation in comparative constructions" provides a very interesting analysis of comparison types to show that there is no evidence for the claim that comparisons of inequality contain a negative, while comparisons of equality do not. Blansitt: "Possessive relative clauses" brings together data from a number of languages on relative clauses. The analysis presented in this paper, while it is of some considerable interest, would have been more satisfying if it had taken into account the findings of studies on relative clauses in the linguistic literature of recent years.

The remaining papers are of peripheral interest to the major themes of the volume. Blanch: "La estructura del discurso en cinco escritores mexicanos" compares the complexity of the clause structures in novels and prose writings. The analysis of the novels fails to distinguish between direct and indirect discourse. The aim of Dubois: "Literature citation in biomedical sciences" is to analyze techniques of citation in scientific prose, but it is not clear whether the results of the analysis have any valid application. Makkai: "'Lexical insertion' as a socio-psychological event in evidence from poetic behavior" is an introspection on the nature of lexical insertion, and one could argue whether the behavior described is poetic.

The volume, therefore, contains some serious analyses of language contact phenomena (in particular, Hudson-Edwards and Bills, C.A. Solé, Sobin, Matluck, Doviak and Hudson-Edwards, Terrell, Cotton and Sharp, Resnick, Webb) and some serious linguistic studies (notably Craddock, Fries). Some of the other papers, however, are more discursive in character and their value is less apparent.

Linda Ferreira, *Notion by Notion: Beginning ESL Practice Book.*
(Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House, 1981, xi, 86 pp.)

Tony Silva, Division of English as a Second Language, University of Illinois.

Despite the implications of its title, *Notion by Notion* has an essentially structural orientation. It is a relatively well organized beginning ESL text, suitable for low-English-proficiency non-academically oriented adult learners. Basic and important English structures are presented in an inductive manner. Each unit/lesson is based on "stimulus material" (a context piece) that is practical in nature, e.g., a menu, schedule, newspaper ad. The next part of the lesson consists of questions about the stimulus material with answers requiring the use of targeted structures. The third part of the lesson is comprised of follow-up activities (related to the context) the purpose of which is to reinforce the targeted structures and relate the context and structures to everyday life situations. Finally, pair and small group work (that, once again, incorporate the context and targeted structures) complete the lesson sequence. Their purpose is to foster interaction between students.

What I have described above is a text that uses a contextualized structural approach. However, the title of the text and the author's introductory comments lead us to believe it is something more: a text that effectively blends structural and functional approaches. This it is not. The author's own words support this view: "...each unit focuses on particular structures. In turn, the sequencing of units represents the grammatical grading and lexical control found in most traditional beginning texts" (Introduction, p. ix). The functional material included in this text is restricted by, and subordinated to, the grammatical material. Form is not presented as a manifestation of function; rather, function is treated as a by-product of form.

An example of the precedence of form over function in this text can be seen in Unit 24, part C--"Declining an Invitation" (p. 49). The student's task here is to decline an invitation presented in question form by using a cue that provides an explanation of why he/she cannot accept the invitation, e.g.:

Question:	Do you want to go to a movie tonight?
Cue:	*watch Monday Night Football*
Suggested Response:	I'm sorry I can't tonight. I'm going to watch Monday Night Football.

The student is also instructed to "be careful of the tense of the verb." It is obvious within the context of this unit, whose stated grammatical objective is to contrast the present tense, the present continuous tense, and the "going to" future, that this supposedly functional exercise is little more than a question-and-answer drill in which the learner manipulates verb tenses. Appropriateness, a basic concept in any truly functional approach, is not a consideration here since the drill is limited to isolated two-line intercharges devoid of any sociocultural context, such as setting or participants.

Ferreira ends her introduction to *Notion by Notion* by stating: "It is the author's hope that the text's organization will encourage those teachers who have adopted a strictly structural graded course to explore the functional-notional approach to language learning" (p. xi). It is this reviewer's hope that the teachers referred to above do not view this text as an accurate representation of functional language teaching materials. *Notion by Notion* is superior to many other structure-oriented ESL texts for beginners and could be very helpful in certain classroom situations. It does not seem viable, however, as a vehicle for functional language teaching.

Daniel Coste, Janine Courtillon, Victor Ferenczi, Michel Martine-Baltar, Eliane Papo. *Un niveau-seuil: systèmes d'apprentissage des langues vivantes par les adultes*.
(Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1976, 663 pp. & table of contents i-vi.)

Michael L. Mazzola, Northern Illinois University.

This book is an ambitious pioneering effort in the field of second-language teaching and has much to recommend it both as a reference for the organization of classroom materials and as a point of departure for further work in the field. It is a programmatic proposal destined specifically for European adults wishing to learn French and is based on the goal of communication. As such, it gives full recognition to the social communicative function of the second language and identifies socio-semantic categories as fundamental units with which syntactic operations are subsequently correlated. The ultimate goal is one of competence which is purported to be rule-governed so as to open up possible channels of expression among which the learner chooses in order to assert himself as a person within the society, thereby crossing a new threshold beyond which he continues to develop a personality using a language within a society which becomes no longer foreign to him, hence the title: *niveau-seuil*.

The work is divided into several chapters, each one assigned to differing members of the team: "Présentation générale" (1-4), "Approche d'un niveau-seuil" (7-43) by Coste, Ferenczi and Papo, "Publics et Domaines" (47-81) by Coste, "Actes de parole" (85-224) by Martins-Baltar, "Grammaire" (227-306) by Courtillon, "Objets et Notions" (307-409) by Coste. These are followed by an index (411-663) and a table of contents. There are also introductory remarks (iii-vi) by J.L.M. Trim, director of the project and by J.A. van Ek whose work for English (*The Threshold Level*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1975) served as the basis for the proposed pedagogical model.

Approach. The outline form aims at clarity and orderly exposition, but in order to get a firm grasp on the line of reasoning underlying the procedure, one must really resort to gleaning certain key sentences and phrases from different parts of the book. At times, it is difficult to see whether the sometimes elusive overview is simply the result of the pragmatic decision to divide the work among the members of the team or whether it is a function of the conceptual framework being presented. Nevertheless, the point of departure seems to be summed up in a code-phrase: "there can only be a syllabus to the extent that someone wants (or has) to learn" (8).[1] The reason people want to learn a foreign language, it is maintained, is that they want to participate in the foreign culture (Avant-Propos iii). Since language is seen properly only within the context of communicative intercourse, it is concluded that the curriculum must be conceived in terms of fulfilling the learners' social needs when participating, at whatever level, in that culture. From this results the key strategy: the project must be centered around the learner rather than, as is done conventionally, around the material to be taught (8).

Responding to the reasons for learning a foreign language, therefore, is the guiding principle for the establishment of objectives, and therein is to be found the claim for the originality of the pedagogical proposal. This is unlike, for example, any other educational system which has the objectives--not drawn from any property necessarily inherent in a foreign language--of inculcating an openness to other cultures or a better understanding of the learner's own language. These objectives, the team rightly points out, can dissimulate other objectives, which, though hidden, can very well be decisive in designing the language teaching program, e.g., the formation of a national conscience, the reinforcement of a dominant ideology, or favoring indirectly a certain social selection. They claim to avoid this here ("Il en va tout autrement...." (9)) by insisting on deriving the objectives of the course directly from the learners' needs and interests (9, 15).

In considering those needs, the team recognizes that learners can display a multiplicity of interests, but that these interests can also have many interdependencies and things in common. Enough of those converging interests will justify a course and constitute a *système d'unités* (10). However, at this point, a restriction is imposed on the procedure by limiting prospective learners to modern Europeans. Even though admitting this to be arbitrary, the team introduces an apparent justification which strikes me as being even more a priori than the delimitation of the group of learners is arbitrary: "it is convenient to posit a quasi-identity or a weak differentiation for the diverse European cultures" (43). This is more tendentious than it is descriptive and its presence assumes importance when viewed in connection with the identification of the learners' needs to fulfill social functions.

The writers find what is called an "ambiguity" (15) in their attempt to systematize the learners' needs. This is to say that since needs are influenced by the individual's socio-economic environment, those needs may be either conflicting or unexpressed (15). To deal with this, the team proposes to arrive at a clarification not only of needs which are unexpressed, but also of needs which are clearly stated by the potential learner. This is done with the purpose in mind of discerning what are called "underlying needs" and will prove useful in foreseeing further needs not yet obvious to the learner, but which may arise during the course of the instruction (16). The needs of the learner in this way become modified; but not only *by* him, as one would be led to believe (16), but--and it would be ingenuous to think otherwise--*for* him as well. This approach, therefore, is not immune to the alarming objectives which might be hidden in conventional practice. Here rather, the objectives, being inextricably bound to the common social needs of a delimited group (e.g., modern European adults), surface and become those very things with "color and reinforce our mastery of concrete reality, our primordial concern" (Avant-Proposs iii). The inevitable result, I am afraid, might very well be the consolidation of a uniform social structure or, at the very least, the accomplishment of utilitarian tasks predetermined by the pedagogical model. The team is well aware of the awesome consequences of this:

> This...gives cause for some concern or, at least, is an invitation to beware of pedagogical illusion or of scientific illusion. The setting up of a system of chapter units is certainly based on a will to better adjust the contents and pedagogical methods according to the nature of the diverse interests and of the multiple objectives for learning modern languages. But everyone knows that this will for rigor and for realism is not enough to render the system innocent and neutral. Here as elsewhere, it is important to know at whose expense adults derive their advantage in learning a

> language. The analysis of the needs and the definition of objectives constitute risks all the more important, if one agrees to think, on the one hand, that they [the analysis and the definition] dominate the whole [enterprise] and, on the other hand, that they...leave room for more than one ambiguity (16).

In spite of this, they proceed to lay out an elaborate plan for determining what such a large potential audience has *in common* in order to respond to what are represented as the *individual's* interests in learning a foreign language. Herein, I think, lies the tendentious characteristic of the approach.

In a very impressive procedure (47ff), potential learners (*publics*) are grouped together on the basis of relevant societal institutions: recreation, work, business and education. This is then cross-indexed with another parameter based on social relationships: the family, the workplace, friendship, the civic forum, including also the news media, for which communication has relevance through language. Each social institution (e.g., recreation or tourism) is then compared to each social relationship in order to determine what amount of interest can be expected at each point. Thus, for example, tourists, as a group, would have more of a need for keeping up with current events or for making friendships than they would have for knowing about family relationships, given the short duration of their visit, etc. In this way, the collective needs of the learners are identified and the kinds of communication the individual is to engage in are determined for him.

Language. Resulting from the foregoing is a fundamental tenet of the approach: the choice and ordering of linguistic elements do not result from criteria internal to the language, but rather from the functions which the language fills and the uses to which it is put (9, 19). In this way, linguistic competence is pushed aside to make room for communicative competence, the purported goal of the program. But communicative competence undergoes a further development by virtue of its being treated as ancillary to the social structure. Viewed from this perspective, communicative competence is considered to be merely partial and summary if it remains on this side of the *niveau-seuil*. But once that threshold has been crossed, the learner enters into another domain where his ability to communicate becomes more "global," where he becomes comfortable enough with the newly acquired social structure so as to be able to teach himself, to grow, and to develop his personality within the target culture and to become a part of it (43).[2] The orientation then seems to be one in which "global competence," derived from what is common to the diverse cultures of man, in effect, assumes the status of what is peculiar to man rather than his "faculté du language."

The inevitable corollary of this is that linguistic forms are worth less in themselves than are the speech acts (*actes de parole*) which they allow the speaker to accomplish (19). The speech acts are those units (e.g., making requests, giving orders, giving demonstrations, making judgments, congratulating someone, etc.) establishing the inventory with which syntactic strings are eventually correlated. The ambiguity inherent in language is not of interest here for the separation in any explicit way of deep and surface levels. The focus of their approach is rather on the mastery of all the combinatory possibilities between the socio-semantic content (*actes de parole*) and the utterance (*énoncé*) in the encoding and decoding process. The mastery then must be presumed to be left to some process which remains unspecified and uncharacterized in any systemic way. The writers are themselves aware of this "...awesome problem of semantic universals and of the old question regarding the relationship between language, culture and concepts" (43). At other times, however, they seem to be casually unconcerned: "...the retained elements perhaps do not constitute a perfectly coherent whole at the level of system. In order to deal with this 'risque'--if it really is one--a whole section has been devoted to a rather systematic presentation (more semantic and taxonomic than formal and algorithmic) of the grammatical phenomena and functions which it seemed convenient to group together" (38). Whether this is a necessary consequence of an approach which assigns language a secondary place in society is not clear at this point.

Style. The discussion concerning style is welcome especially since it is only in recent years that teaching manuals have lent serious attention to it in everyday conversation. Set within its social context, it concerns acceptable behavior according to place, circumstances, domains of reference, social status and the nature of the utterance (21-26). These are presented as given facts which determine the speaker's linguistic options. Further parameters, called paradigmatic indicators, are connected to these situational components and depend on whether the speaker asserts himself to satisfy his own needs (*je*), the needs of others (*tu*), or whether there is a need to initiate and sustain a relationship (third person) (27-31). The relationship, in any case, is not the sum of the words spoken, but rather the result of the whole interaction (verbal and non-verbal) which should satisfy the speakers in their respective attitudes. The conflicting nature of all communication, the writers maintain, is the result of the confusion of stylistic and relational levels. The rejection or the acceptance of what is said is not due only to the validity of the utterances, but also to the relational roles recognized or contested between the speakers. Thus, they conclude, the lack of satisfaction in social dealings is not the inadequacy of the social setting, but rather of the individual's failure in having an informed competence enabling him to utilize the rules determined by social convention.

There are several problems with this conclusion which stem from one observation one could make: style and language are the very means by which this whole pedagogical approach has been created. The team rightly points out that certain formal expressions would be out of place in some social settings and relationships, while more familiar expressions would be more in order in other circumstances. They seem not to want to go beyond this to conclude, however, that linguistic forms in themselves, as well as style, also have the function of creating relationships and are the very factors which determine the success of the relationships. Language and style are themselves societal institutions and, unless they are viewed as being central and inherent to the language teaching process, learners will have to be content with having their reality created for them by others.

Grammar. The accompanying grammar is intriguing for the attempt it makes to insert itself into the proposed pedagogical model and for the observations and descriptions it makes concerning French as a consequence of that view.[3] It is divided into three sections: (1) *actance*, similar to a relational syntax where a state-of-being or action verb predicates something of a subject or object; (2) *détermination*, more or less equivalent with the *actes de parole* which make up the semantic inventory and account for space and time; and (3) *domaine logique* (rational and subjective) which involves the speaker's formulation of the relations between *actance* and *détermination*. These sections, then, sum up the grammar's concern with the need of the speaker to express (*domaine logique*) his "being" and "doing" (*actance*) within space and time (*détermination*) (235-236).

The learner's "being" and "doing" are already inherent in the lexicon: "être," "faire" (and "causer"); and these are the fundamental items according to which the rest of the lexicon is hierarchically classified. This is done on the basis of perceived semantic equivalences. Thus, "avoir" is subsumed under "être" in that *avoir des enfants* is semantically equivalent to *être un parent*, *avoir de la chance* to *être chanceux*, etc. Other verbs can be similarly listed under "être," e.g., *aimer quelqu'un = être amoureux de quelqu'un* and so on. "Faire," on the other hand, is perceived as an action (thereby in contrast with "être") which may or may not effect a change of state of the subject or of the object. In this category are classified all verbs fitting that description, e.g., *habiter rue des Saules*, *dormir*, *marcher sur la pelouse*. "Causer" is the action which across time creates a new state of either the subject or the object and so, is involved with either making oneself or others become something else. From this are derived past tenses, e.g., *partir* → *être parti* where the subject has become something else as a result of its own action; or passives, e.g., *arrêter un voleur* → *le voleur est arrêté*, where the object has become something else as a result of the action of the subject.

It is not made clear here why "faire" could not also be subsumed under "être," since *Paul habite le dortoir* could be seen as the equivalent of *Paul est un des habitants du dortoir*. The state-of-being vs. action verb criterion at this point seems to be at odds with the slippery semantic equivalence criterion. The only justification I can see for the proposed subcategorization is a syntactic one. That is that "faire" verbs can be passivized but "être" ("avoir") can not. Syntax, therefore, may be playing a more important role here than the emphasis on semantics might lead one to think.

Nevertheless, classifying the verbal lexicon in this way does make for some interesting observations. The concept of voice, for example, is seen in terms of grammatical relations and syntactic strings are correlated with it, e.g., active voice: *Pierre a mangé la pomme*.; passive voice: *La pomme a été mangée par Pierre*.; middle voice: *Les pommes se mangent crues ou cuites*.; attributive voice: *La pomme est mangée*. Thus, the notion of passive is relevant both to deep structure where it defines a relationship of dominance between two agents: "who does what to whom." On the other hand, the notion of passive also applies to surface structure where the form of the utterance is determined on the basis of the relationship of dominance between agent and patient. This distinction between a formal passive and a semantic one has the advantage of avoiding the confusion which often arises between "actancial" relationships (active and passive) and the values attached to how the action unfolds (accomplished or resultative) (241).

It would have been interesting to see how these operations work in an explicit way. Instead, the grammar sets for itself the lesser tasks of listing and classifying rather than establishing a set of rules. Courtillon is aware that grammatical competence depends on the learner's intellectual activity, but for pedagogical reasons, she limits her grammar to a listing of the syntactic structures inherent in the lexicon and of the socio-semantic categories (248). The actual combinatory operations between the two are then left up to the student and teacher through practical exercises. Nevertheless, her observations are done with care and could serve as valid preliminaries to what might eventually lead to an explanatory grammar.

Concluding Remarks. The social orientation of the proposal is valuable in its potential for providing the student with a backdrop against which he comes into focus and achieves an awareness of self. This should awaken in him a conscious need to structure his own reality which is essential to the development of his personality as an individual. The foreign language, in my view, can further enhance this process by providing the student with an alternative means of self-expression which affords him another mirror in which his reflection is sharpened. In this way, the curriculum can encourage the learner through the uses language has for the attainment of goals. I would like to think that this can be undertaken not so much *in conformity with* society as *in terms of* society. To the extent that *niveau-seuil* can be interpreted in this way, the *actes de parole* could be put to excellent use in the classroom. I look forward to taking advantage of the flexibility they afford in my own practice.

NOTES

[1] All entries within quotes are translations of my own. The original French is referred to by means of page numbers, entered in parentheses, rather than the section numbers according to which the book is divided.

[2] Alternatively, this process could lead to more specific and specialized competence (43).

[3] An acknowledgment is made that the grammar is based on the work of Gabriel Guillaume and of Bernard Pottier.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED (1981-82)

Studies in Language Learning (1982), 4, 133-135.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED (1981-82)

Aitchison, Jean, 1981, *Language Change: Progress or Decay?* (Fontana Linguistics: An Introductory Series for Social Scientists.) Fontana Paperbacks. 256 pp. £2.95 (UK).

Ardiff, Martha B., and Eileen J. Seaward, 1980, *Great Ideas!* (A Stage 4 Newbury House Reader.) Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. 63 pp. $2.80.

Batchelor de Garcia, Karen, and Barbara Henrici Nixon, 1982, *Discovering English*. (Newbury House Gateway to English Series.) Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. xiv, 162 pp.

Ben-Horin, Gad, et al., 1978, *Israeli Hebrew for Speakers of English*. Urbana, Illinois: Department of Linguistics, University of Illinois. 314 pp.

Blanton, Linda Lonon, 1981, *Intermediate Composition Practice: Book I*. (A Text for Students of English as a Second Language.) Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. xii, 165 pp. $6.95.

Blot, David, and David M. Davidson, 1980, *Put it in Writing*. (Newbury House Writing Activities for Students Learning English Series.) Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. 97 pp.

Coleman, Bruce, and Josephine Hileman, 1981, *Coming to America*. (A Stage 3 Newbury House Reader.) Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. 46 pp. $1.95.

Dennis, John M., 1982, *O, Promised Land. A Multi-Cultural Reader*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. ix, 134 pp. $6.95.

Dunkel, Patricia, and Frank Pialorsi, 1982, *Advanced Listening Comprehension: Developing Aural and Note-taking Skills*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. xxiii, 209 pp. $11.95.

Flint, Austin, ed., 1981, *Insights: A Contemporary Reader*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. x, 164 pp.

Jones, Lewis, 1980, *Darkness by the River and Other Stories*. (A Stage 2 Newbury House Reader.) Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. 38 pp.

_____, 1980, *The Tiger with the Bright Blue Eyes and Other Stories*. (A Stage 2 Newbury House Reader.) Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. 38 pp.

Lyons, John, 1981, *Language, Meaning, and Context*. (Fontana Linguistics: An Introductory Series for Social Scientists.) Fontana Paperbacks. 256 pp. £2.95 (UK).

Mackay, Ronald, and Joe Darwin Palmer, eds., 1981, *Languages for Specific Purposes: Program Design and Evaluation*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. ix, 126 pp. $9.95.

Markstein, Linda, and Louise Hirasawa, 1982, *Expanding Reading Skills: Intermediate*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. xii, 195 pp. $6.95.

Mino-Garcés, Fernando, 1981, *Early Reading Acquisition: Six Psycholinguistic Case Studies*. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press. xii, 81 pp.

Olivella de Castells, Matilde, 1981, *Mundo hispano: Lengua y Cultra*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. xi, 402 pp. $14.95. (Cuaderno de ejercicios, Laboratory Tapescript, and Instructor's Manual also available.)

Rooks, George, 1981, *The Non-Stop Discussion Workbook: Problems for Intermediate and Advanced Students of English*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. xv, 131 pp.

Wigfield, Jack, 1982, *First Steps in Reading and Writing*. (Newbury House Gateway to English Series.) Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers. xvii, 180 pp. $6.95.

STUDIES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Prior Issues Still Available:

Volume 1, No. 2 (Spring 1976) Price: $6.00

"Dimensions of Bilingualism: Theory and Case Studies"
Edited by Braj B. KACHRU

Volume 2, No. 1 (Fall 1977) Price: $3.00

"Language for Special Purposes"
Edited by J Ronayne COWAN

Volume 2, No. 2 (Spring 1979) Price: $4.50

"Language and Culture"
Edited by James W. MARCHAND

Volume 3, No. 1 (Spring 1981) Price: $5.25

"The PLATO System and Language Study"
Edited by Robert S. HART

Volume 3, No. 2 (Fall 1981) Price: $4.80

"Foreign Languages and the Public"
Edited by U. Henry GERLACH

Forthcoming Issue:

"Communicative Language Teaching" - Fall 1983
Edited by Sandra J. SAVIGNON and Margie S. BERNS

LLL TECHNICAL REPORT SERIES

LLL-T-1-81 (March 1981) Price: $1.25

"An Index to PLATO Lessons on Composition"
by Michael PACKERT-HALL and Richard C. BURKE
23 p.

LLL-T-2-81 (July 1981) Price: $1.25

"I. A Study of the Procedure of Granting Waivers of the Foreign Language Requirement at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign;
II. Waiving the Foreign Language Requirement: A Statement of the Practices of the Big Ten Universities"
by Francis W. NACHTMANN
16 p.

LLL-T-3-81 (October 1981) Price: $1.25

"The Role of Television as an Aid in Foreign Language Teaching"
by Junetta GILLESPIE
18 p.

STUDIES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Volume 4, Number 2, Fall 1983
will be a special issue on

Communicative Language Teaching

Edited by
SANDRA J. SAVIGNON and MARGIE S. BERNS

This issue will include invited papers from scholars and teachers in the United States, Canada, and Europe on recent developments in second language teaching and testing.

Orders may be sent to:
SLL, Language Learning Laboratory
G70 Foreign Languages Building
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
707 S. Mathews
Urbana, Illinois 61801
Tel. (217) 333-9776